

THE IMPACT ON INTERPERSONAL INTIMACY OF PARENTAL DIVORCE AND
THE SUBSEQUENT FATHER-DAUGHTER RELATIONSHIP

By

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This is dedicated to the memory of my grandmother,
Mary McKim Turner, who was always my greatest supporter
and friend. She was a survivor, and an inspiration.

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The present investigation looked first at the impact of parental divorce on the father-daughter relationship, and found there to be a significant negative effect. Overall, fathers were found to be rated more negatively than mothers, and the relationship was more negatively influenced by divorce. Next, parental marital status and the relationship with the father were examined for their impact on interpersonal intimacy. There appeared to be little difference between daughters from intact or divorced families on the measures of intimacy, with the exception that daughters of divorce perceived more risk associated with intimacy. The father-daughter relationship contributed little to the variance in intimacy scores. Finally, the impact of having another significant father figure was examined. Daughters of divorce with a poor relationship with their father perceived

higher levels of risk associated with intimacy when there was no other significant father figure. When someone "like a father" was present, the level of perceived risk was similar to that found in daughters from intact families.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Americans have an increasing desire for intimacy, but seem to have a decreasing capacity to fill that desire (Reis, 1984). Among the possible contributors to this incapacity are the divorce rate and the number of children raised in single parent homes. If divorce is intergenerationally transmitted as some suggest, then the deficiencies in intimacy may be perpetuated. Consequently, it is important to explore further the long-term impact of parental divorce and the subsequent capacity for heterosexual intimacy in the children of divorce.

In contemporary society, it is rare to find someone who has not been touched by divorce. Divorce "affects an interpersonal system that includes many people other than spouses . . . as many as five million people will be tied to the more than one million who divorce" (Rice & Rice, 1986, p.3) each year. Hetherington, in 1979, predicted that 40-50% of children born in the 1970's would experience divorce and spend an average of six years living in a single parent home. Consequently, a large number of today's college students either will have been impacted by parental divorce, or can expect to experience it.

Given the incidence of divorce and the number of children who spend at least part of their youth in single parent homes, a number of investigators have been concerned about the economic, social and emotional consequences of divorce. Both the short-term, and to a lesser extent, the long-term sequelae have been examined. Any of the factors that surround divorce may have profound effects which "are incorporated within the character, the attitudes, the relationships, the self-concept, the expectations, and the world view of the child" (Wallerstein, 1983, p. 233). However, in every major area of investigation, including interpersonal relationships, contradictory results exist (Edwards, 1987).

The ambiguous nature of the literature may be due to differences in research methodology, including failure to control for socioeconomic status; differences in subject samples; small or nonrepresentative samples; outcome measures, for example, use of projective tests or measures that are insensitive to changes that might occur over time; or theoretical perspectives (Edwards, 1987; Kanoy & Cunningham, 1984). However, contradictions might also occur because the responses to divorce are dependent upon a number of variables in the experience of the family. For example, a number of factors have been identified that might affect adjustment, including the age of the child at the time of the disruption; the quality of the parents' marriage before

the disruption; remarriage; conflict before, during or after the divorce; and the relationship with the noncustodial parent (Kalter, 1987; White, Brinkerhoff, & Booth, 1985).

Divorce as a Process

Obviously, divorce cannot be viewed as a single event, but must be viewed as a cluster of experiences or as a process. The tendency to dichotomize subjects as either from intact or divorced families is an oversimplification and is one of the problems with methodology, which was identified by Lopez (1987) in a review of the literature. The systemic process of divorce begins before the legal separation and extends well into the post-divorce years (Lussen, 1988). It is particularly important to note that, when comparing children of divorce with children from intact families, it is not necessarily "a comparison of one category of persons, all of whom had very negative early influences, with another category of persons, all of whom were free of very negative early influences" (Glenn & Kramer, 1985, p. 910).

For some, parental divorce brings relief from tension and anger, so it is a positive event. For others, divorce may be perceived negatively, as it brings feelings of loss or shattered dreams. Whatever the initial experience, divorce generally produces changes in the parent-child relationship. While relationships with both mothers and fathers may change following parental divorce, the quality

of the relationship with both the custodial and the noncustodial parent is considered to be important in predicting a child's behavior (Hess & Camara, 1979).

Importance of the Father-daughter Relationship

Following a parental divorce, a child still has two natural parents, but may be faced with divided loyalties. Approximately 90% of children who end up living with only one natural parent are in the custody of their mother (White, Brinkerhoff, & Booth, 1985). Consequently, "father absence, or at least decreased father availability, is a typical concomitant of divorce" (Biller, 1981, p. 489). Because of changes in the living situation and other divisive tendencies within families following divorce, the child often experiences increased closeness and quality of relations with one parent and reduced contact and quality of relations with the other, generally, the non-custodial parent, or father.

White, Brinkerhoff and Booth (1985) point out that the decrease in attachment to the non-custodial parent reduces the child's affectional network. Although both sons and daughters are affected, the reduced affectional network uniquely impacts the daughter, as father absence seems to have an effect on her ability to function in interpersonal and heterosexual relationships (Biller, 1981). The presence of the father and his influence helps the daughter "to

experience herself as a feminine person and helps her relate to the social world as a female" (Forrest, 1966, p. 21).

Intimacy and Adolescent Development

The possibility that parental divorce may have a long-term impact on interpersonal and heterosexual relationships has significant implications for the adolescent and young adult. The developmental task for this age group is the achievement of greater psychological separation from the family and the establishment of an adult identity. Erikson (1968) describes this developmental task as that of establishing mutual psychosocial intimacy.

A part of creating an adult identity involves forming intimate relationships with others, outside of the family, who show understanding and love. Gilligan (1982) suggested that women define their identity in the context of human relationships. The ability to establish these relationships is related to self-esteem, trust, willingness to take risks, and willingness to make commitments, and it is rooted in the parent-child relationship. The ability to establish relationships does not suddenly emerge in young adulthood, but builds on skills attained in previous relationships (Bar-Yam Hassan & Bar-Yam, 1987).

Because there are changes in parent-child relationships following divorce, and because Hetherington (1979) suggests that adolescence is a time where earlier unresolved issues reemerge in disturbances in heterosexual relations, it is

important to explore further the impact of divorce on the development of intimacy. The concept of intimacy captures the essence of "shared norms (about communication, responsibilities); attitudes (liking, loving, trust); beliefs about the relationship (its uniqueness, importance); and relations with other persons" (Kelley et al., 1983, p. 39). Intimacy involves mutuality in being able to share worries and problems, being able to express emotions, having a genuine interest in others, and lacking defensiveness (Orlofsky, Marcia & Lesser, 1973). The ability to develop an intimate relationship with a member of the opposite sex, is a complex process, and can be influenced by a variety of factors. For instance, a deterioration in relations with either parent is associated with increased courtship activity and decreased satisfaction with interpersonal relations for both males and females (Booth, Brinkerhoff & White, 1984).

The break-up of the parental marriage may produce suffering and a feeling of abandonment that has long lasting effects, extending well into adult life (Jersild, Brook, & Brook, 1978). Following parental divorce, the daughter seems to get more maternal support, but she also gets less paternal attention and she is more affected by father absence than is the son (Hetherington, 1979). Leonard (1966) suggested that the father's unavailability to give love and to be loved is critical to the daughter's

development. Perhaps because father availability is decreased, Lopez, Campbell and Watkins (1988) found that parental divorce might actually accelerate most forms of father-daughter psychological separation.

This separation may be manifested in a number of ways. For example, adult female children of divorce are more likely to have lower levels of well-being as defined by happiness, health self-ratings, and satisfaction with health, community, leisure, friendship and family life (Glenn & Kramer, 1985). They are also more likely to become sexually active at an earlier age (Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984; Newcomer & Udry, 1987), to have a greater number of sexual partners (Hepworth, Ryder & Dreyer, 1984), and to marry earlier (Hetherington & Parke, 1979). Some of these behaviors may be problematic, as making excessively early commitments to another person may have negative implications for the ability to negotiate later adult issues (Franz & White, 1985). There is also some evidence of the intergenerational transmission of divorce, as children of divorce tend to marry earlier (McLanahan & Bumpass, 1988) and to be more likely to divorce than are children from intact families (Glenn & Shelton, 1983). Some persons with loss by divorce seem to "seek to demonstrate by moving in and out of a series of relationships, that the losses do not hurt and that relationships have diminished value" (Hepworth, Ryder, & Dreyer, 1984, p. 79).

Biller (1981) suggested that the "lack of opportunity to observe meaningful male-female relationships in childhood can make it more difficult for the father-absent female to develop the interpersonal skills necessary for adequate heterosexual adjustment" (p. 502). While Biller's suggestion seems reasonable, it also seems inadequate to completely explain the impact of parental divorce upon the subsequent interpersonal relationships. Object relations theory provides a broader theoretical foundation that addresses the complexity of the responses to parental divorce.

Theoretical Foundation

A person "is comprehensible only within [the] tapestry of relationships, past and present" (Mitchell, 1988, p. 3). Whereas object relations theory is described as a field theory that considers the individual as anchored in his/her environment or matrix of relationships (Antonovsky, 1987), it provides a good foundation for understanding the behaviors that are manifest in intimate interpersonal relationships (Alford, 1990; Horner, 1984). Dicks (1963) suggests that an individual internalizes relationships with significant others (mother, father, siblings, etc.) and because he or she has felt loved, cherished and accepted, he or she learns to love as an adult.

The "objects" in object relations are human objects, and the "relations" may be real or fantasied, internal or

external interactions with others (Cashdan, 1988). Sullivan (1953), considered by Kernberg (1976) to be somewhat of an object relations theorist, stresses the importance "of interpersonal relationships as determinants of intrapsychic and interpersonal structures" (p. 122). Early relationships become internalized as mental representations that later become manifest in behaviors with others (Lieberman, 1984). Interactions with objects lead to "significant and lasting modifications of the personality, usually conceived of as internal structures, which affect all later experiences with others" (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 538). Thus, the inner world of object relations determines the way an individual relates to the external world through interpersonal relationships.

Object relations evolve over the first three or four years of life, but they continue to be modified by experiences throughout life. In fact, the adolescent ego identity has a foundation in the behavior of meaningful others toward him or her (Sharf, 1989). The adolescent integrates these perceptions and experiences into his or her own changing self-concept.

Although the focus in object relations theory is on the importance of the mother-child relationship, others also play a significant role in the life of the child (Applegate, 1990; Lieberman, 1984). It is not the role of mother or father, determined biologically or legally, that is critical, but the object function of mothering or fathering

(Rosenberger, 1990). Rutter (1974) suggests that "most children develop bonds with several people and it appears likely that these bonds are basically similar" (p. 125). Consequently, the father, or fathering figure, who is active in the life of his child, may be almost as important in the formation of object relations as is the mother, or mothering figure.

Modification or formation of the internal structures "is likely to take place in the presence of and in reaction to strongly experienced affects such as...pain in the relationship with significant others" (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 539). Obviously, parental divorce and the subsequent decrease in the amount of contact and the quality of the relationship with the father can create such pain. Divorce differs from other loss, i.e. parental death, because the father is still present. Consequently, the decrease in contact may be perceived as rejection. This aspect of the divorce experience might well create more pain and have a larger impact upon interpersonal behaviors than any other.

"A primary human need is attachment to a caring person or persons; we develop intense attachments because we crave relatedness" (Mitchell, 1988, p. 26). In fact, Fairbairn (1954) stated that the ultimate goal of human behavior is the establishment of meaningful relationships. In the family, the child learns a mode of connection, "and these learned modes are desperately maintained throughout life"

(Mitchell, 1988, p. 27). Events that break or prevent the necessary attachments, may produce effects that "crop up in different ways over the years, as the child passes through progressive stages of development (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978).

According to object relations theorists, "development is a process which takes place within an interactive matrix of constitutional endowments, significant relationships, and critical events" (Nicholson, 1988, p. 26). Divorce is not only a critical event, but it also impacts on interpersonal relationships. Parental divorce, almost of necessity, interrupts or interferes with attachment to the noncustodial parent, usually the father. Children often experience pain, fear, anger, or depression following a parental divorce. As suggested by Antonovsky (1987), this strong affect may lead to modifications of internal structures.

If divorce results in the perception of abandonment or rejection by the father, even though this rejection is only fantasied, and if this perception is internalized, later relationships may well be affected. The goal of the child will be to avoid anxiety. To do this, the child may utilize defenses of splitting or projective identification. For example, a daughter may see men as all good or all bad; she might use sexuality to attract men, as if to attract her father; she may expect to be rejected and act in a way to elicit rejection; or she might use dominance or control, as

if to say that she negates the importance of her father and can stand alone. In essence, her mind will work to maintain connections with objects, or parents (Alford, 1990).

"Painful feelings, self-destructive relationships, self-sabotaging situations, (may be) recreated throughout life as vehicles for the perpetuation of early ties to significant others" (Mitchell, 1988, p. 27). In particular, girls may manifest problems, in relating to males, that surface when their interest in the opposite sex heightens (Lynn, 1974). The old ways of maintaining connections may no longer be appropriate or useful in forming intimate relationships in young adulthood, but they may be perpetuated none-the-less.

In conclusion, changes in the intrapsychic structures "can have a profound effect on an individual's capacity to enter into mature interpersonal relationships in adult life" (Nicholson, 1988, p. 26). One may carry unconscious fantasies along with mental representations of objects that can color, distort, and affect relations with significant others (Arlow, 1980). Object relations theory seems to provide a theoretical base that addresses the complexity of the impact of divorce on development. Specifically, it gives a foundation for understanding the impact of father-daughter relations on the ability to establish meaningful interpersonal relationships.

Purpose and Need for the Study

To summarize, divorce impacts the entire family, including the children, and there is some evidence that this impact extends well into the post-divorce years (Lussen, 1988). In fact, there is some indication that children of divorce are themselves more likely to end up divorcing. It seems important to ascertain whether this is due to social learning or perhaps due to the ability of children of divorce to establish intimate relationships.

Prior research that has examined the long-term effects of divorce on children has produced confusing and contradictory results, generally due to the variability of factors that might affect the adjustment of individuals following divorce (Kalter, 1987; White, Brinkerhoff & Booth, 1985). One of the factors that has received some attention is the child's relationship with the father. Divorce often produces a decrease in the amount of contact and the quality of the relationship with the non-custodial parent, typically the father (Biller, 1981). The daughter's experience following parental divorce differs from that of the son, because the daughter is more affected by father absence than is the son (Hetherington, 1979).

Although some studies have examined the importance of the father-daughter relationship following divorce, none have focused upon the impact of this relationship on the developmentally appropriate task of college aged students,

i.e. the formation of intimate relationships outside of the family. The present investigation seeks to extend the work of others and to avoid some of the pitfalls of prior work by using objective measures with good reliability and validity and by using enough subjects to allow for detection of significant differences, but not so many as to detect differences of questionable importance.

The findings of this study may help to guide parental decisions regarding the importance of a continuing father-daughter relationship. If there are long-term ramifications of divorce and subsequent decreases in parental relations, as suspected, counselors may also utilize this information in aiding families in transition. At the very least, information will be gathered that will indicate whether or not the father-daughter relationship needs to be examined or controlled in future divorce research.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The preponderance of research on the impact of parental divorce has addressed the traumatic effects that occur shortly after the event or within the period of adjustment, up to three years following the divorce. However, several longitudinal studies and other examinations of long-term effects have been undertaken. Those that have dealt with the long-term effects of parental divorce on adolescent and young adult women have focused primarily on psychological adjustment, family relationships, heterosexual relationships, and the intergenerational transmission of divorce. Although this body of literature provided the foundation for the present investigation, few studies of divorce have examined "conditions surrounding the divorce that might affect children's attempts to form rewarding relationships with the opposite sex" (Booth, Brinkerhoff, & White, 1984, p. 85).

There are a variety of changes set in motion by divorce, including changes in the father-daughter relationship. Because the daughter's relationship with her father might affect her relations with the opposite sex, studies of the role of the father in adolescent development,

and the quantity and quality of the father-daughter relationship following divorce were summarized. Also, the research that focused on intimacy, the developmental task of adolescence and young adulthood, was reviewed.

Studies that linked divorce and the father-daughter relationship to interpersonal intimacy would have been ideal. Unfortunately, such studies were not found. However, four studies were reviewed that linked either the father-child relationship or parental divorce to courtship behaviors, interpersonal relationships, or intimacy (Andrews & Christensen, 1951; Booth, Brinkerhoff & White, 1984; Gabardi, 1990; Weiss, 1988).

Method of Literature Search

The literature was sampled via a computerized search of the Psychlit, Sociofile and Dissertation Abstracts International data bases. Search terms were gathered from the literature and from the Thesaurus of Psychological Index Terms (Walker, 1991). The terms included: "intimacy," "object relations," "divorce," "parent child relations," "young adults," "adolescents," "interpersonal intimacy," and "father child relations." The terms were used alone and in various combinations. Additionally, a search was performed of the Social Science Citation Index on highly relevant studies, such as Gabardi (1990). Finally, the reference sections of useful articles were searched. The studies that were utilized focused on the impact of parental divorce on

adolescents and young adults, the long-term impact of divorce, the impact of the father-daughter relationship on intimacy, and the impact of parental divorce on intimacy. Studies were excluded that focused on young children or on the short term consequences of divorce.

Long Term Effects of Divorce

Wallerstein and Kelly (1976, 1980, 1987) conducted a seminal longitudinal study, which involved 60 families with 131 children. The subjects came from a nonclinical population, and were referred for anticipatory guidance at the time of separation. Subjects were seen again at 18 months, 5 years and 10 years. The data were gathered primarily through lengthy interviews.

At the five year follow-up, the crisis period was over, and most children had resolved their negative feelings about their parents' divorce. It was noted that those who had positive relationships with both parents achieved the best adjustment. Despite resolution of many of the problems, there was some evidence of emotional difficulties in one-third of the children. These children described being intensely dissatisfied with their post-divorce lives, depressed and lonely. Only 34% of the children were considered to be doing especially well, with high self-esteem.

At the 10-year follow-up, Wallerstein (1987) re-visited 16 girls and 22 boys who had been early latency aged (6-8

years old) at the time of their parents' divorce. Semi-structured interviews were supplemented by questionnaires. All of the children were in the custody of their mothers, but during the ten-year period several had spent some time living with their fathers. A little more than one-third saw their fathers regularly, defined as one or more times per month. Fifty-seven percent of the girls and 44% of the boys had irregular visits, defined as less than six visits per year (Wallerstein, 1987).

In terms of school performance, Wallerstein (1987) estimated that 40% of the subjects were underachieving to a significant degree. Additionally, their career aspirations were notably shallow. This group was found to be significantly less psychologically and socially well adjusted than the youngest group, who were now 11-15 years old. Overall, "half of the boys and one fourth of the girls were considered poorly adjusted and at high risk at the time of the ten-year follow-up" (Wallerstein, 1987, p. 210).

The profound unhappiness which these subjects experienced in their current relationships distinguished them from the children who were either younger or older. The unhappiness with relationships is particularly significant as the formation of intimate relationships is the appropriate developmental task for adolescents and young adults (Erikson, 1968). Girls were noted to have had three or more boyfriends during their adolescence, and one quarter

of the girls had had abortions. The girls in this age group also reported more depression and suicide attempts (Wallerstein, 1987).

The Wallerstein and Kelly studies focused attention on the long-term ramifications of divorce with negative findings in educational, psychological and social areas of functioning which extended over a ten year period. These negative results seem to have sparked a variety of subsequent investigations. However, attempts to replicate the findings have not always been successful. The lack of a control group of intact families, the small number of subjects in some of the comparison groups, and the use of the interview as the primary data gathering method have been criticized (Levitin, 1979). Nonetheless, the findings have received considerable attention, in both the research and popular literature, and Wallerstein and Kelly contributed much to the study of divorce by delineating outcomes for children of different ages and developmental levels.

A longitudinal investigation by Guidubaldi and Perry (1985) focused on long-term psychological adjustment and utilized a multifactored mental health assessment of 110 children. Children of parental divorce performed more poorly than children of intact families on 9 out of 30 mental health measures (Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985). In this study, the average length of time since the divorce was 6.41

years, again indicating the continuation of negative effects beyond the initial adjustment period.

Guidubaldi and Perry (1985) found that divorce seemed more related to maladjustment in boys than in girls. However, girls were found to have more social involvement, unreflectiveness, irrelevant talk, negative feelings, critical-competitiveness and blaming than boys (Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985). This investigation utilized parent ratings in addition to other methods, and the authors suggested that the daughters of divorce were more likely than the daughters of intact families to tell their mothers if something good happened. Thus, mothers' ratings of the daughters of divorce could have been positively skewed. On the other hand, the sons of divorce were less likely to tell their mothers if something good happened than the sons of intact families, possibly accounting for more negative ratings.

Psychological well-being following divorce was also examined by Glenn and Kramer (1985). Females whose parents had divorced, when compared to females from intact families, had negative coefficients which reached significance on five out of eight dimensions of psychological well-being. There was no evidence that the negative effects diminished with time, and there was evidence that females were more negatively affected than males. Comparisons were also made between persons who had lost a parent due to death and those from intact families. The results indicated that loss of a

parent due to death does not produce the same long-term negative effects as loss due to divorce (Glenn & Kramer, 1985). While this appears to contradict the theory that father loss is an significant component of divorce, it suggests that the reason for the loss is important.

Following parental death, there is no reason for a child to expect continued contact, but following divorce, the father is still alive and available. A decrease in the amount and quality of contact with the father might be perceived as a rejection and this perception might contribute to negative effects.

Divorce often involves parental conflict, and this conflict also affects the adjustment of the child. For example, Chess et al. (1983) found high parental conflict associated with poorer adaptation; Long (1986) found self esteem positively related to parental happiness rather than to family structure; and Ellison (1983) found a positive correlation between parental harmony and children's assessment of their own psychological adjustment.

Slater and Calhoun (1988) examined the influences of parental marital status and level of conflict during childhood (high or low) on social functioning of undergraduate psychology students. "The ability to develop and maintain supportive friendships and dating relationships varied as a function of family structure and conflict" (Slater & Calhoun, 1988, p. 123). Interestingly, within the

divorced group, those with high conflict had better indices of social functioning than did those with low conflict. However, females in the divorced/high conflict group were less likely to have a boyfriend. The authors concluded that students from the high conflict groups might have lower expectations and reduced skills for the maintenance of intimate relationships.

Parental conflict also affects the parent-child relationship. Conflictual parents are more likely to be self-absorbed, having less energy or capacity for parenting. The child may end up feeling like a pawn, torn between two warring parents, and the conflict may make the access to the non-custodial parent more difficult (Kline, Johnston & Tschann, 1991). Farber, Felner and Primavera (1985) also found levels of family cohesion and conflict to be predictive of adaptive outcome. Where there was greater conflict and less cohesion, there was an increase in anxiety.

Hetherington, Cox, & Cox (1985) conducted a longitudinal study of 144 children and their parents which began to address family relationships. In the original investigation, one-half of the children were from divorced families, and were in the custody of their mothers; the other half were from intact families. At the six year follow-up, 42 of the divorced mothers had remarried. Consequently, some subjects were added so that there were 30

sons and 30 daughters in each of three groups: intact, divorced/remarried, and divorced.

This investigation utilized interviews, standardized measures, and in-home observations. Several differences were observed in family relationships, depending upon family structure. For example, sons and daughters from divorced families were allowed more responsibility and independence than children from intact homes (Hetherington, 1989). Interestingly, what Hetherington described in positive terms, Wallerstein (1985) perceived more negatively, as she felt that children became "overburdened" with various types of responsibilities. Whether or not the daughters of divorce perceived their life changes negatively varied with whether or not their mothers had remarried. Those whose mothers had remarried saw themselves and were seen as having more problems than those from intact families and those from divorced, non-remarried families. Despite many strengths of this study, the quality of parent-child relationships was not addressed.

In an attempt to examine the attitudes of children toward themselves and their parents, Parish and Wigle (1985) evaluated the attitudes of 639 students in another longitudinal study. There were three randomly selected groups of 30 adolescents each: families intact throughout the study; families divorced at the onset and completion of

the study; and families intact at the onset but divorced at the completion.

Subjects were asked to complete the Personal Attribute Inventory for Children (Parish & Wigle, 1985) with their mothers, fathers, and themselves as targets. The adolescents from intact families evaluated themselves and their families more positively than adolescents from divorced families. The ratings were the lowest for those adolescents whose families experienced parental divorce during the study. These findings demonstrate the impact of recent divorce, and suggest that the pain of divorce diminishes with time (Parish & Wigle, 1985).

Although the evaluations of self and parents became more positive over time, the evaluations from children of divorce never became as positive as those from intact families. This study went beyond family structure to examine family processes and relationships. Family processes appear related to the way adolescents evaluate themselves and their parents, and father absence, in particular, was strongly associated with negative evaluations (Parish & Wigle, 1985).

Parental divorce also seems to have an impact on attitudes and expectations for intimate relationships. Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) interviewed 116 children ten years after their parents' divorce. At that time, the children were between 11 and 29 years of age. The findings

indicated that these children wanted what their parents had failed to achieve: a lasting, committed, romantic love and marriage. However, they felt it was unlikely that they would achieve these goals. Many of these subjects felt rejected and feared rejection in future relationships with the opposite sex.

As a part of the Wallerstein and Kelly investigation, Kelly (1981) conducted a study of 18 adolescents and young adults (aged 17-23). Eighteen months following their parents' divorce, the subjects were categorized as resuming their developmental agendas or remaining delayed, disrupted or fixated in their development. After five years, those who had been considered to be well adjusted, at the eighteen month interview, had not yet developed appropriate, enduring relationships. Their relationships tended to be short-lived and terminated by the subjects. Those adolescents who had been functioning at a lower level, had rushed into heterosexual activity and clung to relationships that were unsatisfying. Both patterns could be indicative of problems with interpersonal intimacy. However, it should be noted that these conclusions are based on a small sample; that gender was not controlled; and that there was no comparison group of children from intact families.

Kalter et al. (1985) compared the attitudes of 42 female college students from divorced families to the attitudes of 42 female subjects from intact families. A 19

page questionnaire and 2 Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (Murray, 1971) cards were administered. Several findings emerged: the women in the divorced group began dating later than those in the intact group; the divorced group saw men as more unfeeling and less strong; the divorced group saw females as less sensitive and less mature; and the divorced group was less hopeful about the future and less certain about having a lasting marriage.

Using TAT cards, Lussen (1988) compared the stories of nine girls who experienced parental divorce and ten girls from intact families. The divorced group wrote stories that had the same conflicts, themes, and tasks as the stories from the intact group, but their stories had less resolution and greater ambivalence. The divorced group also had a less trusting view of the world than the intact group. Men were seen as "less supportive, more absent, more pursuing, less rational, more impulsive, and less understandable" where women tended to be "more stuck, burdened, worn down, and trapped by their relationships and cares" (Lussen, 1988, p. 114-115). The author does not indicate that the stories were judged blind and, if that were not done, it would have been a major flaw in the research design.

Parental divorce has been found to have significant negative effects in educational, psychological and social areas of adjustment. Eleven studies have been reviewed and have indicated that the negative effects of divorce extend

beyond the three year adjustment period. Even though the negative effects diminish over time, Parish and Wigle (1985) found that the evaluations of self and parent by children of divorce never became as positive as those from children of intact families. Following divorce, not only does the structure of the family change, but the family processes and relationships also change. The absence of the father has been found to be strongly associated with adolescents' negative evaluations of themselves and their parents (Parish & Wigle, 1985). Relationships within the family were not the only ones affected; Kelly (1981) found that adolescents' heterosexual relationships tended to be either short-lived or unsatisfying. Additionally, girls who have experienced parental divorce have been found to view men less positively and to have lower hopes and expectations for marriage (Kalter et al., 1985).

Intergenerational Transmission of Divorce

With parental divorce impacting upon relationships and expectations for marriage, one of the long-term consequences of divorce that has received much of the research focus has been the intergenerational transmission of divorce. Several investigators have found there to be no significant differences between intact and divorced adult children on attitudes toward marriage. For example, adult children of divorce have been found to be as likely to want to get married (Black & Sprenkle, 1991; Ganong, Coleman & Brown,

1981) and to perceive the advantages of marriage similarly to the children from intact families (Amato, 1988). However, children living in either single parent or reconstituted families view divorce more favorably than those from intact families (Coleman & Ganong, 1984; Greenberg & Nay, 1982).

Wallerstein and Blakeslee (1989) interviewed 116 children ten years after their parents' divorce. At that time, the children were between 11 and 29 years of age. The findings indicated that these children wanted what their parents failed to achieve: a lasting, committed, romantic love and marriage. However, they felt it was unlikely that they would achieve these goals. Many of these subjects felt rejected and feared rejection in relationships with the opposite sex.

Kulka and Weingarten (1979) utilized data from two national surveys which were conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. The initial survey, in 1957, included 2460 respondents and then 2264 respondents were surveyed in 1976. The data were collected using ninety minute interviews, and results indicated that young adults from divorced homes were less likely than those from intact homes to report being very happy. Also, children of parental divorce were more likely to report having their own marital problems. Other investigators confirmed the findings that parental divorce is positively related to

lower levels of marital happiness, increased marital instability, and increased marital disagreements (Booth & Edwards, 1989; Glenn & Kramer, 1987).

In another study designed to examine the impact of preadult experiences on behavior and adult well-being, Glenn and Shelton (1983) found that females whose parents had divorced had a 59.3% greater divorce rate than those whose families remained intact. Similarly, Pope and Mueller (1976) found a higher rate of marital dissolution among children from disrupted homes. By analyzing data including parents' and grandparents' marital status, Black and Sprenkle (1991) found that intergenerational marital instability was significantly greater for the divorced group. Adult children who perceived their parents' marriage to be unhappy had lower levels of psychological, social and marital well-being, as did the adult children of divorce (Amato & Booth, 1991).

In addition to a greater likelihood for divorce or for marital difficulties, parental divorce may influence children's relationships and their later adult well-being in other ways. McLanahan and Bumpass (1988) extended previous studies by examining variables relevant to the formation of families. Interviews were conducted with 7,969 women who ranged in age from 15-44 years. The results provided strong evidence that women who experienced parental divorce and lived in single parent homes, whether in the custody of

mother or father, were more likely to marry before age twenty, give birth before age twenty, give birth before marriage, and to divorce.

Long (1987) had 134 female undergraduates fill out questionnaires on two occasions in order to evaluate attitudes toward marriage. The expectations and evaluations of marriage were lower for daughters who perceived their parents' marriages to be unhappy. Daughters of broken marriage also expected to marry later.

Wallerstein (1983) stated that one of the six psychological tasks of the child after divorce is to achieve realistic hopes regarding relationships. Generally, the achievement of this goal is an issue of adolescence and young adulthood. "In order to trust in the reliability of relationships and maintain the capacity to love and be loved, the child of divorce will need to have acquired confidence in his or her ability and self-worth" (Wallerstein, 1983, p. 242). A number of Wallerstein's (1983) subjects indicated on-going problems in achieving this task. Some said they would never marry, some were described as promiscuous with low self-esteem, and some seemed cynical and felt hopeless.

The conclusions of the preceding investigations seem to indicate that while the adult children of divorce appear as likely to enter into a marriage (Black & Sprenkle, 1991; Ganong, Coleman & Brown, 1981), they may be more likely than

children from intact families to experience problems within marriage and to divorce (Kulka & Weingarten, 1979; Glenn & Shelton, 1983). The eleven studies that were reviewed provided evidence to support theories of intergenerational transmission of marital instability. Perhaps some aspects of parental divorce influence relationships and consequently impact upon the ability to find satisfaction in marriage.

Father-Child Relationship Following Divorce

While much of the previous research focused upon the impact of parental divorce as if it were a single event, a number of more recent investigations have explored the impact of components of the divorce process. It may well be that divorce status does not simply indicate the structure of the family, but indicates the kinds of interactions or relationships likely to be found within families. Relations with parents have been found to be particularly important in contributing to the successful adjustment of children following parental divorce (Hetherington, Stanley-Hagan, & Anderson, 1989). For example, parent-child relationship variables were found to have a greater impact on social relations than parental harmony (Hess & Camara, 1979), and the parent-child relationship was found to have a greater influence on marital attitudes than was family dissolution (Coleman & Ganong, 1984).

Whereas relationships with both parents are important, significant differences have been noted in intimate attachments to mothers and fathers, with fathers being rated lower on intimacy (LeCroy, 1988). However, a father who is warm, involved and accepting contributes to the optimal development of his child (Weinraub, 1978). Comparisons of children from intact and divorced families, using measures of attitudes toward parents and the number of positive adjectives checked, reveal higher ratings of fathers by children from intact families than by children from divorced families (Drill, 1987; Parish, 1981; Parish, 1991). These ratings may be related to changes in the amount of contact with the father or in the quality of the father-child relationship.

Based on a review of the literature, Biller and Weiss (1970) concluded that the role of the father is important in the personality development of the daughter and in her feminine identification. The relationship with the father also explains a significant amount of the variance in self-esteem and problem behaviors (LeCroy, 1988). The impact of the father-daughter relationship on self-esteem is relevant for the current investigation because a good sense of self and strong ego are essential for the ability to achieve emotional and sexual intimacy (Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987).

Young and Parish (1977) specifically explored the impact of father absence on female college students. There

were three groups of students: daughters who lost their father because of death; daughters who lost their fathers because of divorce; and daughters from intact families. Within each of the "father loss" groups, some of the mothers had remarried and some remained single. Standardized measures were administered in order to assess reflection vs. impulsivity, self-criticism, and feelings of security. Daughters who had lost a father and whose mothers had not remarried thought of themselves more negatively and saw themselves as more insecure than girls from intact families (Young & Parish, 1977).

Similarly, Parish and Wigle (1985) found father absence to be strongly associated with negative evaluations of self and parents by the child. When examining the father-child relationship, fathers from divorced families were rated significantly more negatively than those from intact families (Parish & Osterberg, 1984). Attachment to the non-custodial parent was significantly lower than attachment to parents in intact families (White, Brinkerhoff & Booth, 1985).

Following parental divorce, both males and females typically have less contact with their fathers, but the amount of contact is considerably less for females than for males (Amato & Booth, 1991). Southworth and Schwarz (1987) assessed the frequency, regularity and duration of visits with the father in a study of 104 female college students,

one-half from divorced families and one-half from intact families. A composite score indicated that post-divorce contact decreased over time. The amount of contact during the 3-5 year period after divorce was significantly lower than during the first two years (Southworth & Schwarz, 1987). Indicating the impact of a decrease in contact, Lopez and Watkins (1991) found that those students who reported a low level of contact with their fathers had higher scores of functional, emotional, and attitudinal independence from their fathers.

Although the amount of contact does not necessarily indicate the quality of the relationship with the father, there tends to be some correspondence. For example, those who experienced less frequent contact with their fathers following divorce perceived their fathers as less accepting and more inconsistent (Southworth & Schwarz, 1987). Further, within the divorced group, when there was a perception of decreased acceptance and consistency, there was an indication of a decrease in heterosexual trust. These findings are particularly significant because there is a correspondence between the capacity for intimacy and parental acceptance (Finch, 1986).

Overall, quality is considered more important than the frequency of visitation with the father, as children need to have confidence in their ties with their father (Hess & Camara, 1979; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). Daughters not

only experience a decrease in contact with the father following divorce, but the nature of the father-daughter relationship also changes over time (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978). Fathers were found to become more and more unavailable to their children over the two year period following divorce. Fathers became less nurturant and more detached, and when interactions between fathers and their children were observed, the divorced fathers ignored their children more and demonstrated less affection (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978).

In a study designed to examine the effects of father absence on personality development in adolescent daughters, Hetherington (1972) utilized observations of non-verbal behaviors, interviews and personality measures. There were three groups of 24 adolescents each; the subjects were either from intact families, families with father absence due to death, or families with father absence due to divorce. Significant differences were found between the groups in the ways they responded to male interviewers, while few differences were observed in the responses to female interviewers. Additionally, daughters of divorce reported more heterosexual activity, more negative feelings toward their fathers and more conflict with their fathers than either of the other groups. Further, the effects were

greater with early separation rather than later separation, perhaps attesting to the importance of early object relations.

For daughters, there seem to be different patterns of effects depending upon the reason for the father absence, and these effects appear during adolescence and are manifested primarily as the inability to interact appropriately and satisfactorily with males (Hetherington, 1972; Chase-Lansdale & Hetherington, 1990). Zaslow (1988) has described the long-term effects of divorce and father absence as "sleepers effects", appearing as a child passes through progressive stages of development. What Hetherington (1972) described as apprehension and inadequate skills in relating to males becomes most evident just when these skills are required.

Hainline and Feig (1978) attempted to replicate Hetherington's (1972) findings regarding the impact of father absence in a study of college-aged women. Non-verbal behavior during an interview and performance on both standardized and nonstandardized measures were evaluated. Subjects who experienced father absence before age five seemed to have more traditional attitudes about some aspects of sexual behavior than did the subjects who experienced father absence between ages 5 and 10. However, there were no significant differences noted between any of the father loss or control groups on measures of sexual behaviors or

Rubin's Romantic Love Scale (Rubin, 1970). While this investigation failed to replicate the findings of Hetherington (1972), it should be noted that there were only six subjects in each of the cells; there were cultural differences in the samples, and the subjects in the Hetherington study were of a lower socioeconomic status.

Vess, Schwebel and Moreland (1983) further explored the long-term impact of divorce on feminine development. Undergraduates were utilized whose families were intact, whose families divorced before the subject was five years of age, and whose families divorced when the subject was between five and ten years of age. The girls whose fathers left before age five selected more feminine characteristics on the Gough Femininity Scale than those whose parents divorced later. The authors further concluded, based on the indications of distrust and insecurity that persisted well after the parental divorce, that the child's perceived rejection by one or both parents may result in enduring problems (Vess, Schwebel & Moreland, 1983).

Kinnaird and Gerrard (1986) examined sexual behavior and attitudes toward marriage, using adolescents and young adults whose families were divorced, remarried or intact. Subjects were administered five questionnaires and the results indicated that the intact group had more positive attitudes toward marriage; the daughters from both divorced and reconstituted families reported more sexual experience;

and subjects from divorced and reconstituted families were more likely to respond that they would have liked more contact with their fathers. An effort was made to investigate the impact of other significant males, including the stepfather, but the presence of other influential males was not predictive of any behavioral, attitudinal or adjustment variables.

Wallerstein (1984), as a part of the ten-year follow-up, found that, for thirty adolescents who had been between two and one-half and six at the time of divorce, "the non-custodial father remained a significant psychological presence" (p. 454). Even those children whose mothers had remarried had an intense awareness of their fathers, and the relationships with fathers and stepfathers were distinguishable and separate. The need for the father had not diminished but heightened with the advent of adolescence (Wallerstein, 1984).

The relationship with the father has been found to be important in contributing to adjustment following parental divorce (Hetherington, Stanley-Hagan & Anderson, 1989) and to the optimal development of the child (Weinraub, 1978). Following divorce, not only is the amount of contact with the father decreased, but the nature of the relationship also changes (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1978). Daughters experience less frequent contact than sons and the amount of contact decreased over time (Amato & Booth, 1991; Southworth

& Schwarz, 1987). While some authors have suggested that the presence of another significant male figure might decrease the impact of changes in the father-daughter relationship, this has not received much support in the studies that were reviewed.

A poor relationship with the father has been linked with apprehension and inadequate skills in relating to males (Hetherington, 1972); with changes in the personality development of the daughter and her feminine identification (Biller & Weiss, 1970; Vess, Schwebel & Moreland, 1983); and with sexual behaviors and negative attitudes toward marriage (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986). Of all the components of the divorce process, the relationship with the father may have the greatest impact upon the ability to have satisfying, intimate relationships.

Intimacy and its Measurement

Much of the literature about intimacy is descriptive, attempting to define the construct. This is understandable as some equate intimacy with love, some equate intimacy with sexual behavior, and others believe that intimacy involves primarily the ability to self-disclose. The diverse ways that intimacy has been defined make it appear more complex than any of these views indicate. Intimacy involves affection, the willingness to commit oneself to another, the ability to trust, the ability to be open and share personal information, and the willingness to provide support to

another (Levitz-Jones & Orlofsky, 1985; Perlman & Fehr, 1987; Trotter, 1986). Intimacy also requires the ability to both give and receive love, so it entails mutuality (McAdams, 1989; Dyk & Adams, 1987).

A study by Roscoe, Kennedy and Pope (1987) further illustrates the complexity of defining intimacy. When 277 undergraduate students were asked to respond to questions requesting their thoughts of what distinguishes an intimate from a non-intimate relationship, the most frequently mentioned components were sharing, physical/sexual interaction, trust and faith, openness, and love (Roscoe, Kennedy & Pope, 1987). There were also significant differences between the components mentioned most frequently by men and women. Males were more likely to cite physical/sexual interaction, and females were more likely to cite openness and self-abandon.

Intimacy is but one component of love (McAdams, 1989; Sternberg, 1986). Sternberg's triangular theory of love proposes that there are three components of love; intimacy, passion, and commitment. The intimacy component seems to be at the core of loving relationships (Sternberg & Grajek, 1984). Intimacy is necessary for both friendship and love, and "the desire for intimacy is a fundamental psychological need in human lives, one of a few basic needs that organize our behavior and experience and provide our lives with meaning" (McAdams, 1989, p. 2).

While Sullivan, Erikson and McAdams see intimacy as an individual capacity, Argyle and Dean (1965) see it as both a quality of persons and interactions. In the second view, an individual may have the capacity for intimacy, but not achieve it because it requires a relationship. There has also been some debate over whether intimacy is a state or a process, but Perlman and Fehr (1987) see intimacy as both dynamic and static, and as both personal and situational. Perhaps intimacy is best captured by examining both attitudes and behaviors.

Capacity for Intimacy

The capacity for intimacy depends upon the individual resolving their own separateness, and it is unlikely that a person would achieve this level of development until late adolescence or early adulthood (Erikson, 1968). In a study of intimate relationships between college women, Rayfield, Liabre and Stokes (1987) found that self-actualization was the best predictor of intimate friendships. Whether intimacy precedes the self-actualized, mentally healthy state or whether the mentally healthy state precedes intimacy is unknown.

The capacity for intimacy also requires the ability to trust another person. Optimism and trust were measured in a study by Franklin, Janoff-Bulman and Roberts (1990). Groups of college students from divorced families and intact families were compared. Although the groups did not differ

significantly in trust or optimism regarding present or future dating relationships, or close friendships, the parental divorce subjects were less optimistic about their own future marriages. Perhaps witnessing the breakdown in trust in their parents' marriage led to increased pessimism and caution, or perhaps, as the authors suggest, these children of divorce have a more realistic assessment of the dynamics of relationships (Franklin, Janoff-Bulman & Roberts, 1990).

Craig-Bray and Adams (1986) performed a study which utilized a variety of measures of intimacy, including the Orlofsky, Marcia and Lesser (1973) interview. Additionally, subjects were asked to fill out a record of their social interactions. The sample included 23 males and 25 females between the ages of 18 and 22 years. Females with higher social intimacy were found to have greater self-disclosure and satisfaction with interactions in opposite sex contexts (Craig-Bray & Adams, 1986). The interview and self-report measures which were utilized were found to have strong, but not perfect convergence, and the measures lacked strong convergence with daily social interactions. Intimacy status in same sex relationships paralleled intimacy status in heterosexual relationships (Craig-Bray & Adams, 1986), suggesting that intimacy is a capacity which may depend upon a relationship, but not on a specific type of relationship.

Intimacy Motivation

Intimate relationships were found to be preferred over less intimate relationships, in a study by Caldwell and Peplau (1982). When 98 college students were asked about the types of friendships that they prefer, 73% of the men and 83% of the women preferred having a few intimate friends over having many less intimate friends. Similarly, Reis and Shaver (1988) found that five of the most highly rated friendship goals, based on the ratings of 99 college students, also fit the definition of intimacy.

In order to study intimacy motivation, McAdams (1989) designed a way to score the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), as he believed that people who were both high and low in intimacy motivation were likely to rate themselves as natural, warm, sincere and loving. Utilizing the TAT, McAdams et al.(1988) explored sex differences in intimacy motivation. Consistently, women had higher scores than men, indicating greater desire for intimacy. Although women seemed to have a disposition to prefer intimacy, overt behaviors were not being evaluated. There were no significant differences between women and men on fear of intimacy (McAdams et al., 1988).

In a study that specifically addressed fear of intimacy in college women, Lutwak (1985) found 31 out of 107 women to have a high fear of intimacy. Most of the 31 students were frightened of being hurt or taking risks. The women feared

marriage and commitment and sought security and safety. These characteristics fit the descriptions of women in low-intimacy status, as described in Levitz-Jones and Orlofsky (1985). Unfortunately, Lutwak (1985) did not provide data on parental marital status, so no information is available on whether the students who had a high fear of intimacy came from any particular family background.

Impact of Parental Divorce on Intimacy

While dating behaviors do not necessarily correspond to intimacy, either absent or excessive dating may indicate problems in the capacity for intimacy. Andrews and Christensen (1951) found that both males and females who had a father missing from the home had begun dating at an earlier age, "gone steady" earlier, gotten engaged earlier, and had more broken engagements than the group that had both parents present. Thus there seemed to be accelerated courtship activity when the father was absent, but the outcomes did not necessarily involve close, committed relationships.

Booth, Brinkerhoff and White (1984) assessed the long-term consequences of divorce on courtship. They utilized a questionnaire designed for their investigation. The sample of 2538 college students included 228 whose parents' marriage was broken by death and 365 whose parents had separated or divorced. The children of divorce were found to be actively involved in courtship behaviors, and as

likely to form long-term relationships as others. However, children of divorce were more likely to engage in premarital sexual intercourse or to be cohabiting. Additionally, when there was a decline in relations with mother or father, there was a significantly large percentage of the children of divorce who reported "difficulty in dating people with whom they could develop a serious relationship" (Booth, Brinkerhoff & White, 1984, p. 90). When relations with the parents were analyzed separately, those students who were less close to their fathers reported less satisfaction with their heterosexual relationships.

Following disruption of their parents' marriage, adult female children of divorce have been found to "become more solitary within interpersonal relationships" (Weiss, 1988, p. 148). Additionally, when compared to daughters of intact families, those from divorced families felt more distant from their fathers. In this particular investigation, these findings persisted over a period as long as 17 years, again indicating that the impact of divorce extends well beyond the adjustment period.

Gabardi (1990) performed a study of the differences between college students from divorced and intact families on measures of intimacy, sexual behaviors and beliefs about relationships. Subjects were both male and female students aged 18-25 years old. There were 185 children of intact families and 115 children of divorce. The results indicated

that the number of sexual partners was significantly influenced by a number of factors. Parental divorce, parental unhappiness and parental conflict all predicted a greater number of sexual partners. Since these same three factors also affect the quality of the parent child relationship, it is possible that the nature of the relationship actually explains the most variance in the number of sexual partners. No significant differences were noted between college students from divorced and intact families on measures of intimacy, relationship beliefs or self-esteem. Students whose parents had divorced also had a more negative view of their sociability than did the students from intact families.

Intimacy is a construct that has been defined and measured in different ways by different researchers. However, there do seem to be some commonly accepted components of intimacy, including the ability to self-disclose, the ability to trust, and the sharing of support and love. Intimate relationships have been found to be preferred to other types of relationships (Caldwell & Peplau, 1982), and women seem to prefer intimacy more than men (McAdams, et al., 1988). Behavioral indications of intimacy suggest that parental divorce and the absence of the father are negative influences on the ability to establish close, committed relationships (Andrews & Christensen, 1951; Booth, Brinkerhoff & White, 1984;

Gabardi, 1990; Weiss, 1988). Because the ability to establish intimate relationships influences both heterosexual and same-sex relationships, further exploration into the impact of divorce on interpersonal intimacy is warranted.

Summary

The impact of parental divorce has been found to extend well beyond the period immediately surrounding the legal separation. In the years following divorce, not only does the structure of the family change but family processes and relationships also change. Of the family relationships, the one between the father and daughter has been found to be negatively affected, with contact becoming less frequent and fathers becoming less available and less nurturant (Amato & Booth, 1991; Southworth & Schwarz, 1987; Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1987). The impact of parental divorce also extends beyond the family; parental divorce affects attitudes and behaviors related to dating, courtship, and the formation of long-lasting relationships. The daughters of divorce were found to have dated earlier (Andrews & Christensen, 1951), had a greater number of dating relationships (Wallerstein, 1987), had more sexual experience (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986), had shorter-lived relationships (Kelly, 1981), and had lower hopes and expectations for marriage (Kalter et al., 1985) than did daughters from intact families. Children of divorce were also more likely to report problems

within their own marriages (Booth & Edwards, 1989; Glenn & Kramer, 1987).

These behavioral and attitudinal indices suggest that intimacy, or the ability to commit oneself to another, trust, interact physically/sexually, be open and share personal information, and the willingness to provide support to another (Levitz-Jones & Orlofsky, 1985; Perlman & Fehr, 1987; Roscoe, Kennedy & Pope, 1987), is affected following parental divorce. However, various measures of intimacy and behavioral measures have not always had perfect convergence (Craig-Bray & Adams, 1986) and studies of intimacy following parental divorce have not always found differences between children from intact and divorced families (Gabardi, 1990). Since parental divorce does not necessarily involve uniformly negative experiences, perhaps some aspect of the divorce process, for example, the father-daughter relationship, is more important in impacting intimacy than is the divorce itself.

It has been suggested that father absence or a poor relationship with the father has been linked with apprehension and inadequate skills in relating to males (Hetherington, 1972); with changes in the personality development of the daughter and her feminine identification (Biller & Weiss, 1970; Vess, Schwebel & Moreland, 1983); and with sexual behaviors and negative attitudes toward marriage (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986). It may be that the failure to

control for the nature of the father-daughter relationship contributed to the lack of significant results in studies that used divorce as the predictor of the ability to establish meaningful, intimate relationships (Franklin, Janoff-Bulman & Roberts, 1990; Gabardi, 1990).

Object relations theory provides a foundation for the examination of the father-daughter relationship and its impact upon intimacy as it suggests that early relationships with significant others are internalized and impact upon the ability to love as an adult (Dicks, 1963). Antonovsky (1985) states that interactions with significant others are internalized and "affect all later experiences with others" (p. 538). Further, although object relations are formed early in the life of a child, they continue to be modified throughout life. Modification is likely to occur when there is "pain in relationship with significant others" (Antonovsky, 1987, p. 538). Parental divorce often interferes with or interrupts the attachment to the father. The resultant disturbance of this important object relationship may be expected to influence interpersonal intimacy.

Hypotheses

The goals of the current investigation include confirmation of previous studies, which have concluded that divorce has a negative effect upon the father-daughter relationship, and exploration of the impact of the father-

daughter relationship, following divorce, upon intimacy. It is expected that both parental divorce and the quality of the father-daughter contact will impact the capacity for intimacy with the opposite sex. Accordingly, the present investigation tests the following hypotheses:

HYPOTHESIS #1: Daughters of parental divorce will be more likely to rate their fathers lower on the Parent-Child Relationship Survey than will the daughters from intact families. This hypothesis tests a main effect: that the father-daughter relationship is negatively affected by divorce. This hypothesis was supported by the findings of Drill (1987), Parish (1981), Parish (1991), Parish and Osterberg (1984).

HYPOTHESIS #2: Daughters of parental divorce will score lower than daughters from intact families on measures of intimacy. This hypothesis tests the effect of divorce on heterosexual intimacy irrespective of the quality of the father-daughter relationship, which is a main effect.

Although the negative effect of divorce on intimacy was not supported by Gabardi (1990), Weiss (1988) found daughters of divorce to be "more solitary within interpersonal relationships" (p.148).

HYPOTHESIS #3: Daughters who have a poor relationship with their father will score lower on measures of intimacy than daughters who have a good relationship with their father, regardless of parental marital status. This hypothesis

tests the main effect of parent-child relationship on measures of intimacy. This hypothesis was supported by Biller and Weiss (1970) and Hetherington (1972), but was not supported by Hainline and Feig (1978).

HYPOTHESIS #4: Daughters of parental divorce who have a poor relationship with their father will score lower on measures of intimacy than any other comparison group. This hypothesis tests an interaction effect. While this hypothesis and the one following have not yet been tested, they are predicted based upon the support of their separate components, as indicated above.

HYPOTHESIS #5: Daughters from intact families who have a good relationship with their fathers will score higher on measures of intimacy than daughters from any other comparison group. This hypothesis tests the interaction of parental marital status and father-child relationship on measures of intimacy. Figure 1 illustrates the predicted directions of the interaction effects for Hypotheses 4 and 5.

HYPOTHESIS #6: Daughters of divorce who have a poor relationship with their father, but who have someone "like a father" to them will score higher on measures of intimacy than will daughters who have a poor relationship with their father and no other significant father figure. Kinnaird and Gerrard (1986) found that the presence of another significant male was not predictive of behavioral,

attitudinal or adjustment variables, but they did not assess the quality of the relationship. Object relations theory suggests that the fathering figure is important, but it need not be the biological father (Rosenberger, 1990).

Consequently, it is considered important to examine the effect of someone who is perceived as filling the fathering role.

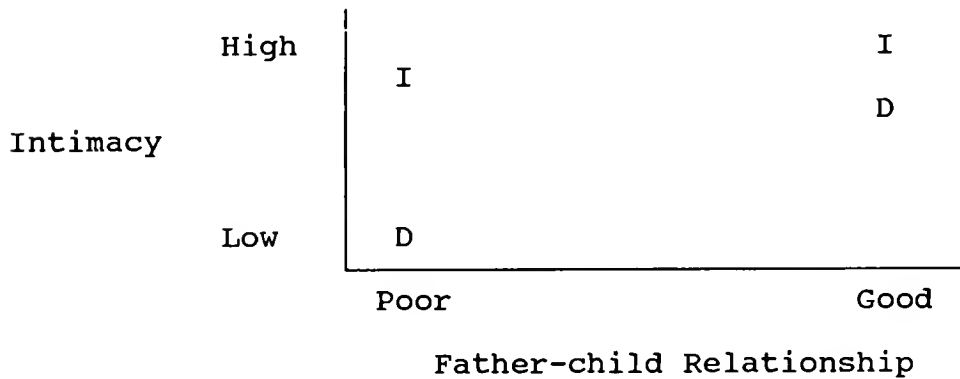


Figure 1: Predicted interactions for Hypotheses 4 and 5.

Note. "D" and "I" refer to parental marital status with "D" being divorced and "I" being intact. Scores on the Risk in Intimacy Inventory would be reversed.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

Subjects

Subjects for the current investigation were taken from a sample of 379 female students enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses. Some volunteers, particularly those who were taking general psychology, participated for course credit; others received no compensation or credit for their participation. Data were also gathered from 67 male students who filled out the questionnaires within their psychology classes, but the data from these subjects were not used in the tests of the primary hypotheses. When subjects were solicited from the general psychology pool, the notices requested females aged 17-25. Subjects were not selected or solicited based on parental marital status or the nature of the father-daughter relationship.

Since the purpose of the present investigation was to ascertain the long term impact on interpersonal intimacy, of the father-daughter relationship following divorce, only subjects for whom information was available on parental marital status, age of the subject at the time of divorce, and the nature of the father-daughter relationship were included. Subjects were placed in one of two groups, those whose parents were divorced and those whose families of

origin were intact. Approximately thirty percent of the total sample were from families of divorce and seventy percent were from intact families. Further, subjects were categorized as having either a "good" or a "poor" relationship with their fathers. This categorization was determined by the score on the Parent Child Relationship Survey (Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1985), as described within this chapter, and by a single question on the demographic form: please rate your relationship with your father, on a scale from 1-7, with 1 being poor and seven being excellent.

Every attempt was made to either eliminate or control for as many confounding variables as possible, as several researchers have indicated that there are a number of variables that might affect adjustment following parental divorce. These covariates included gender (Kalter & Rembar, 1981); current age (Kalter & Rembar, 1981); length of time since the divorce (Frost & Pakiz, 1990); age at the time of divorce (Black & Sprenkle, 1991; Lopez, 1987; White, Brinkerhoff & Booth, 1985); socioeconomic status (Biller, 1981; Edwards, 1987; Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985; Mueller & Cooper, 1986); and race (Glenn & Kramer, 1985). In addition to these variables, presence of another significant male figure, sexuality and custody arrangements were also considered important by the author.

Of these variables, gender and current age were judged to be of primary importance and they were controlled by using only female subjects within a limited age range (17-25 years of age). Another covariate which had to be controlled was the length of time since the divorce, since only long-term effects were being examined. Accordingly, in order to be included in the category of children of parental divorce, the divorce must have occurred three or more years prior to the administration of the questionnaires.

Socioeconomic status was utilized as a covariate as it was found to have a significant effect on one of the intimacy measures. Information on race was gathered and analyzed to assure that a balanced composition was maintained in the cells. Information on the presence of another significant male figure was collected and examined in order to determine if it contributed significantly to the variance in intimacy scores. Data on homosexual and bisexual students ($n=9$) were eliminated from the primary analyses, as it was considered possible that the father-daughter relationship would have a different impact on intimacy, depending upon sexual orientation. Finally, data on subjects who had lost a parent due to death or who were in the custody of their father following divorce were excluded from the analyses. After all of these factors were controlled, approximately 300 subjects remained. A summary of the variables that were controlled appears in Table 1,

and the number of subjects in each cell is indicated in Table 2.

Table 1: Description of final sample.

Gender -	Female
Age -	Aged 17-25
Sexuality -	Heterosexual
If parents are divorced-	Mother had custody Divorce occurred 3 or more years ago

Table 2: Number of subjects in each category.

Parental Marital Status	Father-Daughter Relationship	
	Good	Poor
Intact	140 (47%)	89 (30%)
Divorced	11 (4%)	58 (19%)

Procedure

Subjects were given a demographic/descriptive questionnaire, a parent-child relationship survey and four measures of intimacy. Surveys were administered to groups of approximately 10-30 subjects. Prior to the administration of the questionnaires, the informed consent form was read. The subjects were told that the purpose of this investigation was to learn more about interpersonal relationships. The whole purpose of the study was not revealed to the subjects until the debriefing, in order to prevent any tendency to respond in the expected direction.

Within each packet, the questionnaires were randomly ordered in an attempt to prevent any response bias, and the forms were identified only by last four digits of the subjects' parents' phone number so that anonymity could be maintained. After completing the instruments, the subjects were given a debriefing form and were allowed to ask questions.

Measures

Students completed a demographic and descriptive questionnaire, a parent-child relationship survey, and four measures of intimacy: the Miller Social Intimacy Scale, the Risk in Intimacy Inventory, Rubin's Love Scale, and the Dyadic Trust Scale. Based on the information from the demographic/descriptive and parent-child relationship surveys, subjects were placed in appropriate categories: intact/good relationship; intact/poor relationship; divorced/good relationship; and divorced/poor relationship.

Demographic Questionnaire - The demographic and descriptive questionnaire was designed to assess the parents' marital status, the subject's current age and the age at the time of the divorce (if applicable), some indication of the parent-child relationship, and whether or not someone else may have been a significant "object," like a father, in the subject's life. Additionally, information about current dating status and sexual orientation was solicited. A copy of the demographic questionnaire can be found in Appendix C. Responses to questions about parental occupations and

educational levels were used to code the socioeconomic level according to the socioeconomic index and occupational classification scheme of Stevens and Cho (1985).

Parent-Child Relationship Survey (PCRS) - This paper and pencil, self-report questionnaire, was designed to "assess older children's perceptions of the quality of their own parent-child relationships on a number of dimensions" (Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1985, p. 155). A copy of the Parent-Child Relationship Survey can be found in Appendix D. There are two parallel subscales, one for the mother and one for the father. Each uses 24 Likert-type items, scored on a seven point scale. For the purposes of this investigation, only the Father Scale was utilized.

The psychometric properties of the Father Scale are mainly unidimensional, measuring primarily the Positive Affect of the father-child relationship, as perceived by the child. Positive Affect accounts for over 50% of the variance (Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1985). Other factors, which accounted for much less of the common variance, were trust/respect; lack of anger; and father identification (Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1985).

Reliability and validity of the PCRS have been examined in several studies of middle-class, college-aged students (Fine, Moreland & Schwebel, 1983; Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1985, 1986). Internal consistency of the Father subscale was .96. The Father subscale also has discriminative

ability in that it distinguishes between subjects from divorced and intact families (Fine, Worley & Schwebel, 1986).

While the range of possible scores, on the father subscale, is 24-268, the means for women from intact and divorced homes were 128 and 97, respectively in a study by Fine, Moreland and Schwebel (1983). When daughters of parental divorce filled out the subscale with their stepfathers as the target, the mean was 114 (Sauer & Fine, 1988). For the present investigation, the mean for the total sample ($n = 440$) was 114 and the median was 123. For the approximately 300 subjects in the final sample, the mean was 115, and the median was 126, and for the 51 subjects who had some one "like a father", the mean for the other significant father figure was 116 and the median was 122.

For the purpose of determining whether the father daughter relationship would be considered "good" or "bad", it was decided to use a median split. Although it was thought that utilizing either the upper and lower forty percent or the upper and lower thirds would perhaps give a greater ability to detect differences, there was a concomitant loss of power because of the reduction in cell sizes. Additionally, when the different ways of categorizing the father daughter relationship were compared, there appeared to be little difference in the outcomes. The PCRS was also correlated with the single item on the

demographic questionnaire which dealt with the father-daughter relationship. That single item captured 86% of the variance explained by the PCRS.

Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS) - The Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS) was designed to measure intimacy in the context of interpersonal relationships (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982). A copy of the Miller Social Intimacy Scale can be found in Miller and Lefcourt (1982). In order to develop this scale, an initial pool of thirty items was generated from interviews with fifty students. Based on high inter-item and item-total correlations, seventeen intimacy items were retained for the final scale. The items are scored on a ten point frequency and intensity scale.

Two hundred and fifty-two subjects participated in a study designed to assess the validity and reliability of the scale. There were 72 male and 116 female unmarried undergraduates, a married sample of 17 couples, and a married clinic sample of 15 couples who were seeking marital therapy (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982). The mean MSIS score for unmarried females was 139.3 and the mean score for married females was 156.2. The mean of 143.59 for the sample in the present investigation appears similar and fell within the range of means found by Miller and Lefcourt (1982).

A Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.91 lent strong support to the internal consistency of the measure and indicated that a single construct was being assessed. Test-

retest reliability was measured over a two month period. The results indicated that there is some stability in the maximum level of intimacy experienced (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982).

Convergent validity was explored by having subjects also complete the Interpersonal Relationship Scale (IRS), which assesses trust and intimacy in the marital relationship. Those who scored high on the MSIS also scored high on the IRS. Another group completed a measure of loneliness and those with low scores also scored low on the MSIS, as predicted.

Construct validity was examined by having subjects complete the MSIS twice, describing a casual friend and then their closest friend. The intimacy scores were significantly higher for closest friends than for casual friends. MSIS scores for married students were also significantly greater than scores for unmarried students. Finally, MSIS scores for married students were higher than for the married clinic sample (Miller & Lefcourt, 1982).

These findings suggest that the MSIS is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring social intimacy. Waring (1985), in a review of measures of intimacy, suggests that a problem with this instrument revolves around the issue of whose intimacy is being measured - his, hers, or theirs. The question of whose intimacy is being measured does not seem to be of practical importance for this study, but it is

important that this scale utilizes a broad definition of intimacy. The MSIS is designed to recognize the multifaceted nature of intimacy, and does not simply focus on self-disclosure, as other scales have done (Waring, 1985).

Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII) - This inventory, with 10 items scored on a 6-point scale, was designed to measure differences in the perception of risks associated with intimacy (Pilkington & Richardson, 1988). A copy of the Risk in Intimacy Inventory can be found in Appendix G. One hundred and ninety-five female and 201 male undergraduates completed the Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII). Based on their responses and a principal components factor analysis, one principal factor was identified, which accounted for 37% of the variance. A Cronbach's alpha of .80 indicated good internal consistency of the measure.

Convergent validity was suggested as those who perceived greater risk also were more likely to have lower self-esteem and fewer close friends, and were less likely to be currently involved in a romantic relationship (Pilkington & Richardson, 1988). Negative correlations were also noted between high RII scores and measures of interpersonal trust and dating assertiveness.

A second study supported these findings with one factor accounting for 45% of the variance and a Cronbach's alpha of .86. Additionally, sociability and overall extraversion

correlated negatively with RII. "In general, those who perceive risk in intimacy report attitudes (e.g. low trust) and behaviors (e.g. low assertiveness) consistent with their perceptions (Pilkington & Richardson, 1988, p. 507)."

Pilkington & Nezlek (1991) summed each subject's responses to the 10 items and performed a median split. Thus, subjects were defined as perceiving higher levels of risk in intimacy or perceiving lower levels of risk in intimacy. For the Pilkington and Nezlek (1991) investigation, the median score was 22. For the present investigation, the median score was 25. The means in two studies by Pilkington and Richardson (1988) were 24.31 and 25.68. The mean for the current study was 25.78, which is considered similar to those found in the prior investigations by Pilkington and Richardson (1988).

Rubin's Love Scale (RLS) - This 13-item scale was developed to measure three components of romantic love: affiliation and dependent need; predisposition to help; and exclusiveness and absorption (Rubin, 1970). The items for the scale were selected based on separate factor analyses for responses with reference to "lovers" and "friends." The items which loaded the highest when "lovers" were the target formed the love scale. Sternberg and Grajek (1984) found that the love scale focuses on the intimacy component of close relationships rather than on the other two components of love: commitment and passion.

The love scale had a high internal consistency, with a coefficient alpha of .84 for women and .86 for men. Thus, it seems to primarily tap into a unitary concept. There was also some support for its discriminative validity, as the love scale was only moderately correlated with the parallel liking scale, $r = .39$ for women.

The love and liking scales were administered to 158 dating couples, and the mean scores for dating partners were much higher than they were for friends. For women, the mean love score for a dating partner was 89.46, and the mean love score for a friend of the same sex was 65.27. These means compare favorably to the mean of 84.98 found in the present investigation. Kacerguis and Adams (1980) found the Rubin Love Scale and the Yufit intimacy scales positively correlated. The Love Scale also correlates significantly with the strength scale of the Relationship Closeness Inventory (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989). These results lend support to the construct validity of this scale. Additionally, the scores were uncorrelated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

Of importance to the present investigation, the Love scale seems to measure an attitude toward a particular person rather than a general capacity for love or intimacy. However, high scores would seem more likely when a person is more capable of developing intimate relationships.

Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS) - This eight-item scale was constructed from a pool of 57 items taken from previous trust scales (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). The items which were selected for this scale, seemed to tap into a unidimensional construct, based on factor analysis. The item-total correlations were high, ranging from .72 to .89.

A sample population that was not involved in the item selection also completed the Dyadic Trust Scale. The reliability found for that sample was .93. Additionally, the Dyadic Trust Scale had a low correlation with social desirability and with other generalized trust scales. Thus, this measure appears reliable, unaffected by social desirability, and distinct from generalized trust (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). The overall mean for the sample in the present investigation was 48.12

Forty dating couples, 20 newlywed couples, and 20 longer-married couples completed the Dyadic Trust Scale as well as Rubin's Love Scale. The findings indicated a strong relationship between dyadic trust and love, for individual and couple scores. When comparing the longer-married couples with the unmarried couples, the correlations were significantly higher for the longer-married couples. However, when the newlyweds were included in the comparison, there was no significant difference. Larzelere and Huston (1980) suggest that the engagement and newlywed period is

one of transition and turbulence, which would account for lower correlations between love and dyadic trust.

Larzelere and Huston (1980) found that the mean dyadic trust scores varied by the type of relationship being measured, but the range was from 43.63 to 49.40 for couples that were either dating or married. The mean score for the present investigation was 48.04. This mean compares favorably to the scores found by Larzelere and Huston (1980).

Dyadic trust was also noted to be associated with self-disclosure for both the dating and married participants. There was some trend for these correlations to increase as levels of commitment increased (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). The dyadic trust scores also varied by relationship status. Separated or divorced partners had significantly lower scores than any other group, and the newlyweds had the highest scores of the other groups, being significantly higher than the dating or separated/divorced groups. However, the differences between the dating and longer married couples failed to reach the levels of statistical difference.

Dyadic trust is considered to be a necessary component of intimacy. The validity and reliability of this scale, as well as its brevity make it a desirable addition to other measures of intimacy. Larzelere and Huston suggest that the "reciprocity of dyadic trust in intimate relationships is at

least as strong as the reciprocity of self-disclosure, and apparently stronger than reciprocity of love" (1980, p. 603). The scores were expected to provide some confirmation of the quality of the dating relationship.

In conclusion, four measures of intimacy were used in order to assess different aspects of the construct. These four scales are objective in format, and have good reliability and validity. The aspects of intimacy that were measured are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary of the Instruments and Aspects of Intimacy

Instrument	Aspect of Intimacy Measured
MSIS	Social Intimacy - intimacy in the context of interpersonal relationships
RII	Differences in the perception of risks associated with intimacy
RLS	Three components of romantic love: affiliation and dependent need; predisposition to help; and exclusiveness and absorption
DTS	Dyadic Trust in intimate relationships

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The data were analyzed utilizing SAS software (SAS Institute, 1982) and the statistical procedures described below. Univariate statistics were calculated so that frequencies, means, medians and standard deviations could be examined and compared. The medians on the PCRS were used to place participants in appropriate categories for the father daughter relationship, i.e., "good" or "poor." A Chi-Square test was performed to ascertain whether or not the cells were similar on racial composition.

Because of the unequal number of participants in each category, the general linear model was used to test the primary hypotheses. This procedure called for the performance of two-way analyses of variance designed for unbalanced data, with parental marital status and relationship with the father being the predictor variables and the scores on the four measures of intimacy as the criterion variables. Socioeconomic status was examined for its contribution to the variance in intimacy scores, and the impact of divorce on socioeconomic status was also explored. Once statistically significant results were observed in the general linear model suggesting the contribution of a

significant proportion of the variance by one of the independent variables, simple effects tests were utilized to provide a clearer picture of the actual differences. Finally, a factor analysis was performed on the items in the measures of intimacy, in order to determine that there were indeed four factors, corresponding to the four intimacy scales.

Frequencies and Univariate Statistics for Parent-Child Relationships

Participants were asked to rate the quality of their relationship with their father and then to rate the quality of their relationship with their mother on the demographic questionnaire. The rating of these parent-child relationships was on a seven point Likert scale, with 1 being poor and 7 being excellent. Using the entire sample, responses to these items were examined and the distributions are shown in Figures 2 and 3. Not only were there apparent differences in the distribution patterns, there were also differences in the mean ratings, $F(1, 438) = 66.1, p < .0001$. The mean for mothers was 6.0 and for fathers was 4.9. Even when parental marital status was not a factor, the relationship with the mother was rated significantly higher than the relationship with the father.

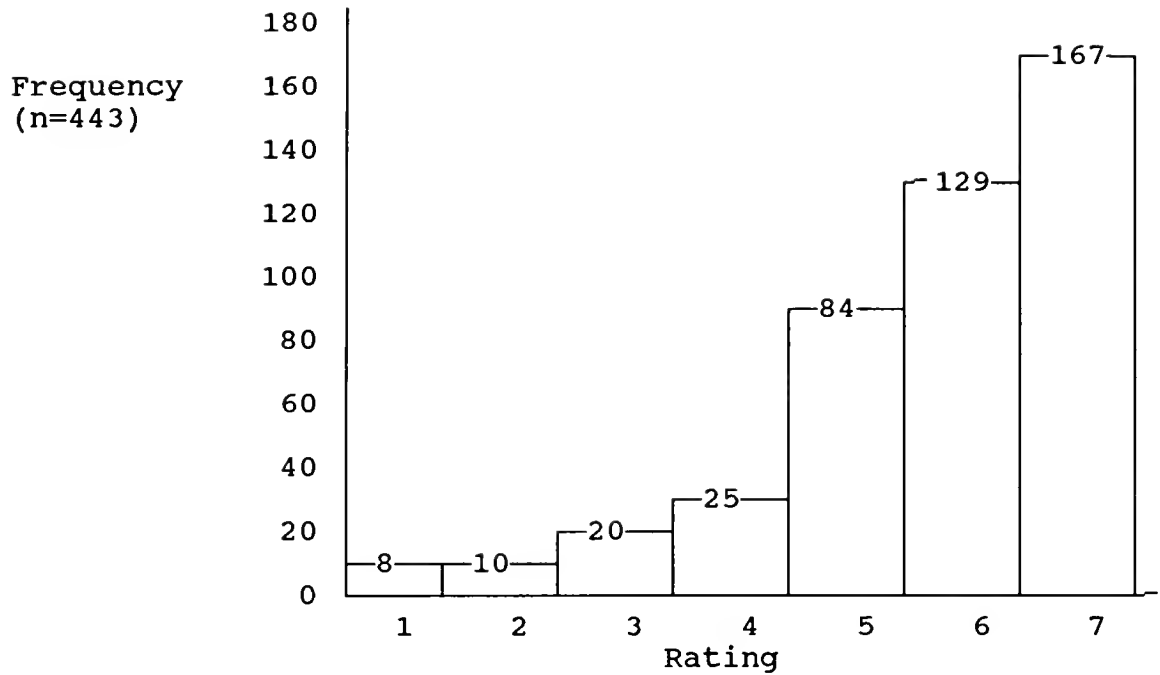


Figure 2: Relationship with Mother

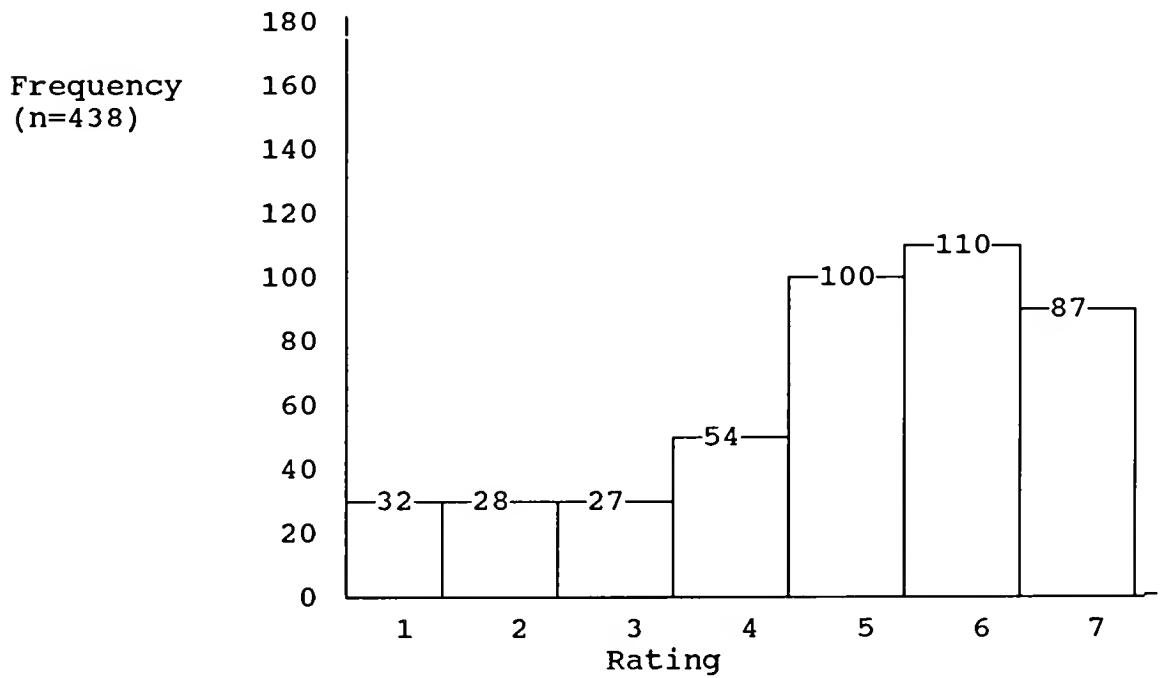


Figure 3: Relationship with Father

The Chi-Square Test of Racial Composition

The Chi-Square Test for differences in racial composition in the cells revealed no significant differences, $F(9, 248) = 15.7, p < .074$. These findings indicated that it was not necessary to use racial/ethnic background as a covariate in further analyses. The composition of each of the cells is indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Racial/ethnic composition of cells, by parental marital status and relationship with father.

	Int/Poor	Int/Good	Div/Poor	Div/Good
Caucasian (75.5%)	59	110	48	8
African American (8%)	8	8	5	2
Hispanic (8%)	8	13	2	1
Asian (8%)	12	9	3	
Other (<1%)	6			

Note: "Int" and "div" refer to the parental marital status, with "int" being intact and "div" being divorced; good and poor refer to the nature of the father-daughter relationship.

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status (SES) was entered into the general linear model as a covariate in order to see if it contributed significantly to the variance in intimacy scores. Scores on the Dyadic Trust Scale were significantly lower when SES was lower, $F(1, 281) = 4.2, p < .042$.

Additionally, findings of an apparent interaction of marital status and the father-daughter relationship on Rubin's Love Scale disappeared when SES was included. Participants from divorced and intact families differed significantly on socioeconomic status, $F(1, 286) = 6.5, p < .012$. Intact families had a significantly higher SES than divorced families. The mean score for intact families ($n = 220$) was 58.3 and for divorced families ($n = 67$) was 50.6. Based on these observations, SES was included as a covariate in the analyses of the primary hypotheses.

Analyses of Variance for Primary Hypotheses

Relationship with Father

The first hypothesis predicted that daughters of parental divorce would rate their fathers lower on the PCRS than would daughters from intact families. This hypothesis was supported, $F(1, 296) = 119.7, p < .0001$. The mean for daughters of divorce ($n = 69$) was 82.3 and for daughters from intact families ($n = 228$) was 126.5. For this sample, divorce was associated with a reduction in the quality of the relationship with the father.

Given these findings, it was decided to further examine the father-child relationship as affected by divorce, and to determine whether the relationship with the mother was similarly affected. Because the single item regarding the relationship with the father on the demographic questionnaire correlated 86% with the father subscale of the

PCRS, this item was considered to be a reasonable way to further examine the parent-child relationship.

Additionally, because the mother subscale of the PCRS had not been utilized, it was decided to use the single question to compare the impact of divorce on the relationships with both the father and mother. There was a significant interaction effect between parental marital status and the relationships with parents, $F(1,296) = 67.8, p < .0001$.

The mean ratings of relationships with fathers and mothers, by parental marital status, are shown in Figure 4.

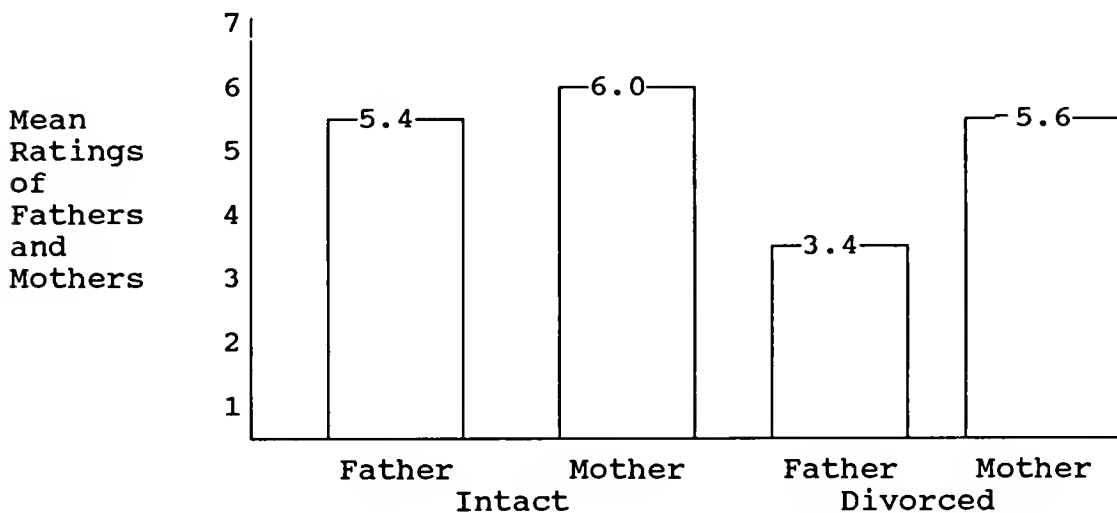


Figure 4: Mean ratings of relationships with fathers and mothers, by parental marital status

Simple effects tests were then conducted to determine if the observed differences were significant at each level of marital status. When the parental marriage was intact, the relationship with the father was rated significantly lower than the relationship with the mother, $F(1, 228) = 43.3, p < .0001$. When parents were divorced, the differences

were also strong, $F(1, 69) = 79.3, p = .0001$. The ratings of mothers from divorced and intact families did not differ significantly, $F(1, 297) = 2.91, p < .089$, but fathers from divorced families were rated significantly lower than fathers from intact families, $F(1, 297) = 94.9, p < .0001$. The results regarding fathers' ratings agree with the findings based on the PCRS.

Parental Marital Status and Intimacy

The second hypothesis predicted that daughters of divorce would score lower on measures of intimacy than daughters from intact families. This hypothesis was not supported on three of the measures of intimacy: the Rubin Love Scale (RLS), $F(1, 293) = .02, p < .88$; the Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS), $F(1, 292) = .80, p < .37$; and the Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS), $F(1, 294) = 1.1, p < .30$. Findings on the Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII) did reach the level of statistical significance, $F(1, 297) = 5.0, p < .026$. The means on each of these measures are indicated in Table 5. It appears that daughters of divorce perceive more

Table 5: Means on intimacy scales, by parental marital status.

RLS		DTS	
Divorced 86.0	Intact 84.1	Divorced 48.4	Intact 4.8
MSIS		RII*	
Divorced 145.5	Intact 142.9	Divorced 28.4	Intact 25.0

Note. * indicates statistically significant results.

risks associated with intimacy, but daughters from divorced and intact families do not differ significantly on other measures of trust and intimacy.

Father-Daughter Relationship and Intimacy

The third hypothesis predicted that daughters who had a "poor" relationship with their fathers would score lower on measures on intimacy than daughters who had a "good" relationship. This hypothesis was not supported by the data, as the relationship with the father contributed little to the variance in intimacy scores. The findings for the four intimacy scales are as follow: Rubin Love Scale (RLS), $F(1, 293) = 2.1, p < .15$; Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS), $F(1, 292) = 2.2, p < .14$; Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS), $F(1, 294) = .77, p < .38$; and the Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII), $F(1, 297) = 0.0, p < .97$. The means for each of the intimacy measures are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Means on intimacy scales, by father-daughter relationship.

RLS		DTS	
Good	Poor	Good	Poor
83.9	85.7	49.7	46.9
MSIS		RII	
Good	Poor	Good	Poor
144.7	142.3	24.7	26.9

Interaction of Father-Daughter Relationship and Parental Marital Status

The fourth and fifth hypotheses examined interaction effects. The fourth Hypothesis predicted that daughters of divorce with a poor relationship with their fathers would score the lowest on measures of intimacy. This hypothesis was not supported by the data as there was no significant interaction between marital status and father daughter relationship. The findings for the four intimacy scales were as follow: Rubin Love Scale (RLS), $F(1, 293) = 2.5$, $p < .11$; Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS), $F(1, 292) = .03$, $p < .87$; Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS), $F(1, 294) = .03$, $p < .85$; and Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII), $F(1, 297) = 1.2$, $p = .28$. The means for the tests of interaction are given in Table 7.

Table 7: Means on intimacy scales, by father daughter relationship and parental marital status.

RLS				DTS			
Intact		Divorced		Intact		Divorced	
Good	Poor	Good	Poor	Good	Poor	Good	Poor
84.3	83.8	78.6	88.4	49.7	46.4	51.1	47.8
MSIS				RII			
Intact		Divorced		Intact		Divorced	
Good	Poor	Good	Poor	Good	Poor	Good	Poor
144.4	140.4	147.6	145.0	24.2	26.1	30.1	28.1

The fifth hypothesis also predicted an interaction effect, where the daughters from intact families who had a

good relationship with their fathers would score higher than any other comparison group. Again, there were no significant effects noted. The findings and means are noted above, under Hypothesis 4 and are shown in Table 7. It appears that the interaction of father daughter relationship and parental marital status contributes little to differences in the four measures of intimacy.

Impact of Having Someone "Like a Father"

The sixth hypothesis predicted that, of daughters who rated their relationship with their father as poor, those who have "someone like a father" would score higher on the intimacy scales than those who do not have another significant father figure. This hypothesis received mixed support from the data: it was not supported on three of the measures of intimacy: the Rubin Love Scale (RLS), $F(1, 57) = 1.1, p < .31$; the Dyadic Trust Scale (DTS), $F(1, 57) = .28, p < .60$; and the Miller Social Intimacy Scale (MSIS), $F(1, 67) = .13, p < .72$. Findings on the Risk in Intimacy Inventory (RII) did reach the level of statistical significance, $F(1, 57) = 5.1, p < .03$. Daughters of divorce with a poor relationship with their father perceived higher levels of risk associated with intimacy when there was no other significant father figure. The means for the test of the sixth hypothesis are indicated in Table 8.

The findings for the RII were further explored by comparing daughters from intact families with daughters of

divorce who had someone else like a father and those who did not have another significant father figure. A main effect for group was observed, $F(2, 297) = 4.5$, $p < .01$. The means are indicated in Figure 5.

Table 8: Means on intimacy scales, by the presence or absence of someone like a father.

RLS		DTS	
No	Yes	No	Yes
83.2	89.0	49.1	47.2
MSIS		RII*	
No	Yes	No	Yes
146.9	144.8	30.1	24.0

Note. * indicates statistically significant results.

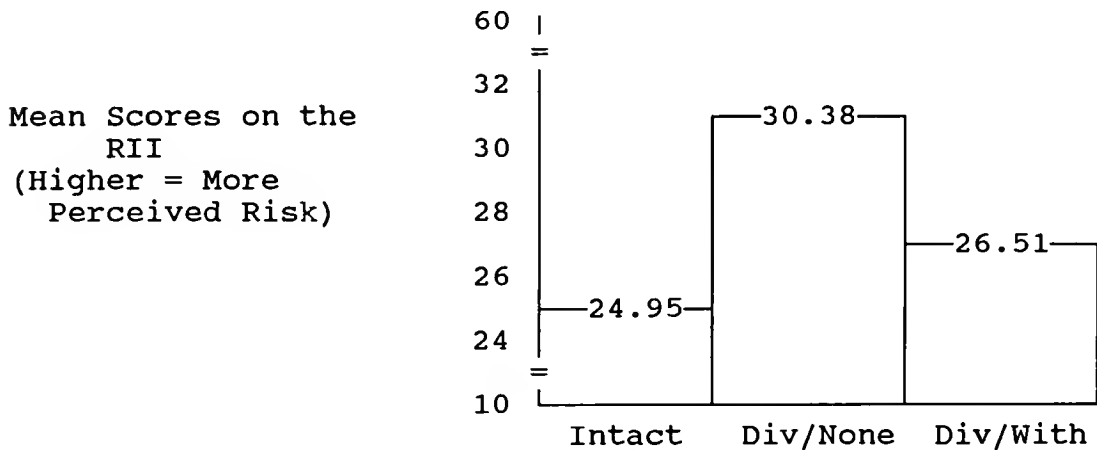


Figure 5: Mean scores on the RII by parental marital status and presence of a significant father figure.

Follow-up comparisons were conducted to isolate the effect of group. Comparing those participants whose parents were divorced and who had someone like a father with those whose parents were divorced with no other significant father

figure, the differences were statistically significant, $F(1, 68) = 4.1, p < .04$, with the daughters who lacked someone like a father perceiving more risk associated with intimacy. The daughters whose parents were married also perceived significantly less risk associated with intimacy than did those whose parents were divorced with no one else like a father, $F(1, 262) = 8.9, p < .003$. When comparing those whose parents were married and those whose parents were divorced with another father figure present, there was no significant difference noted, $F(1, 263) = .10, p < .75$. The presence of another significant father figure following parental divorce seems to reduce the perception of risk associated with intimacy.

Factor Analyses of Intimacy Scales

The Scree plot, shown in Figure 6, of all items on the four questionnaires indicated that there were indeed four factors. The four factor solution was rotated using a promax rotation because there was some correlation between the scales, as shown in Table 9. The factor analysis, including all scores greater than an absolute value of .2, is shown in Table 10. In large part, each factor represented one of the intimacy scales. Each item correlated with one of the scales, with the exception that the fourteenth item of the MSIS correlated with the second factor.

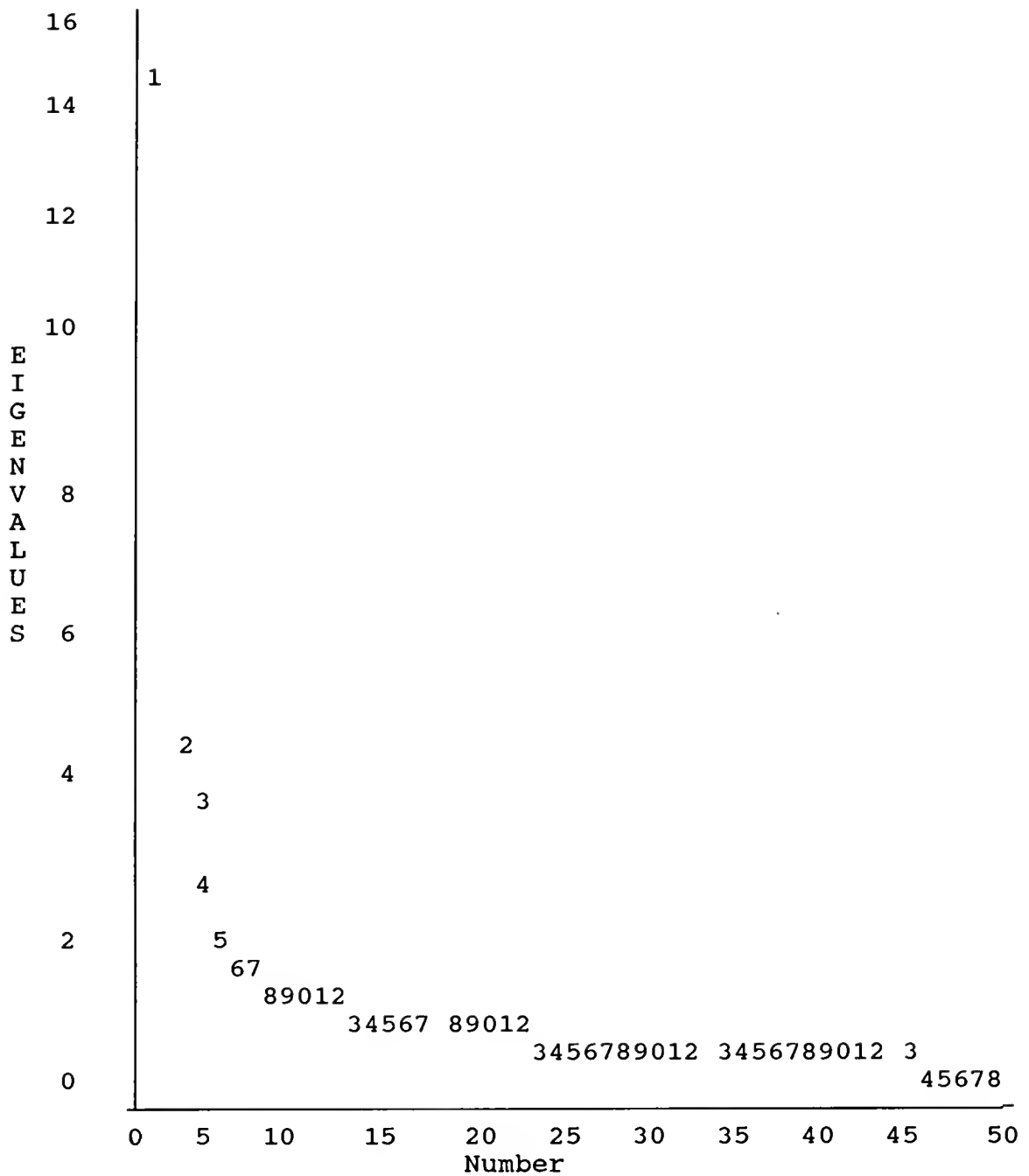


Figure 6: Scree plot of Eigenvalues

Table 9: Correlation analysis of the intimacy scales.

	<u>RLS</u>	<u>DTS</u>	<u>MSIS</u>	<u>RII</u>
<u>RLS</u>	1.0	.35	.62	-.22
<u>DTS</u>		1.0	.47	-.27
<u>MSIS</u>			1.0	-.38
<u>RII</u>				1.0

Table 10: Factor Analysis Using a Promax Rotation

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
RLS	1	-	-	.57716	-
RLS	2	-	.40188	.36969	-
RLS	3	-	-	.32448	-
RLS	4	-	-	.65962	-
RLS	5	-	-	.63370	-
RLS	6	-	-	.75504	-
RLS	7	-	-	.78488	-
RLS	8	.25155	-	.59526	-
RLS	9	-	-	.69333	-
RLS	10	-	-	.62745	-
RLS	11	-	-	.56193	-
RLS	12	-	-	.54140	-
RLS	13	-	-	.69669	-
DTS	1	-	.70511	-	-
DTS	2	-	.72139	-	-
DTS	3	-	.79015	-	-
DTS	4	-	.84766	-	-
DTS	5	-	.84187	-	-
DTS	6	-	.71402	-	-
DTS	7	-	.83442	-	-
DTS	8	-	.77816	-	-
MSIS	1	.78792	-	-	-
MSIS	2	.29523	-	-	-.22879
MSIS	3	.81108	-	-	-
MSIS	4	.57546	-	-	-.25041
MSIS	5	.34903	-	-	-
MSIS	6	.76892	.25787	-	-
MSIS	7	.82179	-	-	-
MSIS	8	.69403	-	-	-
MSIS	9	.78929	.28110	-	-
MSIS	10	.75565	-	-	-
MSIS	11	.67330	.39775	-	-
MSIS	12	.83176	-	-	-
MSIS	13	.51260	-	.22130	-
MSIS	14	-	.50464	-	-
MSIS	15	.72773	-	-	-
MSIS	16	.75011	-.25509	-	-
MSIS	17	.66629	-	.22474	-
RII	1	-	-	-	.77797
RII	2	-	-	-	.64279
RII	3	-	-	-	.75524
RII	4	-	-	.20291	.56562
RII	5	-	-	-	.78707
RII	6	-.24088	-	-	.51288
RII	7	-	-	-	.74167
RII	8	-	-	-	.65331
RII	9	-	-	-	.84575
RII	10	-	-	-	.50640

Note: Only correlations of +/- .20 were shown.

In conclusion, three of the measures of intimacy, Rubin's Love Scale, the Dyadic Trust Scale, and the Miller Social Intimacy Scale correlated positively with each other and correlated negatively with the Risk in Intimacy Inventory. Also, the intimacy scales seemed to represent different factors. The correlations and factor analysis seem to indicate that the scales tap into different aspects of intimacy, and they support the decision of this author to utilize all four scales.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

The present investigation looked first at the impact that parental marital status has on the father-daughter relationship. The relationships between fathers and daughters were found to be generally rated lower than those between mothers and daughters, regardless of marital status. Furthermore, relationships between fathers and daughters were found to be significantly negatively affected by parental divorce. These findings supported the conclusions of several other investigations (Drill, 1987; Parish, 1981; Parish, 1991; Parish & Osterberg, 1984; Parish & Wigle, 1985). Given the expected reduction in the quality of the father-daughter relationship following divorce, it was not surprising that daughters of divorced parents who had a good relationship with their fathers were the least-frequently found participants in this investigation. Only eleven daughters (16% of the daughters whose parents were divorced) rated the relationship with their fathers as good. This seems a disturbing statistic, but it is important to remember that all of these participants were in the custody of their mothers following the divorce of their parents.

Because of the custodial arrangement, it may not have been totally unexpected to find that only 16% of the daughters did have a good relationship with their fathers, because children of divorce who are in the custody of their mothers may have less contact with their fathers. Amato and Booth (1991) reported that "both males and females from divorced families had less contact with their fathers, but the difference was considerably greater for females than for males" (p. 903), and Southworth and Schwarz (1987) found that females who had less frequent contact perceived their fathers as less accepting and more inconsistent. In the present investigation, all participants whose parents were divorced and who were included in the final sample were likely to have had some level of restriction on the amount of contact with their fathers. Consequently, it is possible that the eleven fathers who received higher ratings gave some extra attention to maintaining a good relationship. More often, children are not that fortunate, so there is still some concern that, within this sample, 84% of the female participants whose parents were divorced were not satisfied with their relationship with their fathers. The percentage of participants who rated the father-daughter relationship as poor may not be unexpected, but it still seems undesirable because the father is important to the development of the child.

The second area of investigation was the effect of parental marital status on intimacy. The prediction was that daughters of divorce would score lower on measures of intimacy than would the daughters from intact families. Four intimacy scales, which measured specifically love, dyadic trust, social intimacy and risk in intimacy, were used. Four scales were selected in order to examine the commonly accepted components of intimacy, including the ability to self-disclose, the ability to trust, the ability to establish a close committed relationship, and the sharing of support and love. The prediction that marital status would affect intimacy was not wholly supported. There were no significant differences on Rubin's Love Scale, Dyadic Trust Scale, or Miller Social Intimacy Scale. These results supported the findings of Greenberg and Nay (1982) that children from divorced and intact families were not significantly different in level or quality of dating behavior or in attitudes to marriage, but they contradict the findings of Booth, et. al. (1984) and Hetherington (1972) that parental divorce affected the quality of courtship relations. The data also did not support the conclusions of Weiss (1988), who found that daughters of divorce tended to become "more solitary within interpersonal relationships" (p. 148).

Although parental divorce did not seem to have an effect on love, dyadic trust, or social intimacy, the

results did suggest that divorce was related to a higher perception of risk in intimacy. Lutwak (1985) found that fear of intimacy was related to fear of marriage and commitment, supporting the conclusions of Carson, Madison and Santrock (1987) that adolescents from divorced families were more apprehensive about entering into marriage. Booth and Edwards (1989) and Carson, Madison and Santrock (1987) also indicated that the perception of risk and the fear of intimacy may be linked to a greater willingness to break off an unsatisfying relationship. Based on these earlier findings, the higher level of risk perceived among the daughters of divorce may be predictive of the intergenerational transmission of divorce.

Trust is one component of intimacy. Pilkington and Richardson (1988) found the perception of risk to be associated with lower levels of trust. The present investigation also tended to support that association, as the scores on the Dyadic Trust Scale, which measures dyadic trust in intimate relationships, were negatively correlated ($r = -.27$) with the RII scores. As the perception of risk increased, the level of dyadic trust decreased. Despite the correlation, it is important to remember that parental marital status did not have a statistically significant impact on the score on the Dyadic Trust Scale.

The impact of the father-daughter relationship on intimacy was explored next. The relationship with the

father was found to have little impact on the intimacy measures. This finding contradicts that of Booth, Brinkerhoff and White (1984) who concluded that students who were less close to their fathers reported less satisfaction with heterosexual relationships. The lack of significant findings regarding the impact of the father-daughter relationship would tend to contradict the expectation that pain in the relationship with the father would impact interpersonal relationships. This would also seem to refute the importance of the father as a significant object in the life of the child, but it may be that when the father is "lost" because of divorce, someone else can fill his role, as in parental remarriage.

Because a fathering figure may have contributed to the variance, the presence of someone "like a father" was examined for its impact on interpersonal intimacy. The presence of a significant father figure, other than the biological father, was found to be associated with a lower perception of risk in intimate relationships, so the daughters of divorce who had a significant father figure perceived similar levels of risk similar to those found in daughters of intact families. Those with no one "like a father" perceived significantly more risk associated with intimacy. There were no significant results noted on any of the other measures of intimacy. In the majority of cases (68%), the person who was "like a father" was the

stepfather, but grandfathers and others were included as well. These findings support the suggestion by object relations theorists that the fathering figure is important, but that he need not be the biological father (Rosenberger, 1990).

It was also noted that socioeconomic status was significantly lower in families of divorce than in intact families. This observation supports the conclusions of previous investigations that it is important to control for socioeconomic status (Biller, 1981; Edwards, 1987; Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985; Mueller & Cooper, 1986). Although socioeconomic status was not the subject of this study, it may have a "bearing on socialization practices and parent-child relationships" (Edwards, 1987, p. 361). For example, the amount of time spent with children and the nature of interactions and relationships may vary with socioeconomic status.

One final observation was that several scales were needed to capture the construct of intimacy. The data indicated that there were four factors in the intimacy items used in the present investigation. This seems to confirm that intimacy is indeed a complex construct, but it does not necessarily indicate that the four scales, measuring love, dyadic trust, social intimacy, and risk in intimacy, captured all of its components. Alternatively, intimacy may actually be less complex, and these scales may have been

measuring different factors rather than components of one factor. While this is not considered to be a likely explanation, it is possible.

Conclusions

It is certainly clear that divorce has a negative impact on the relationship with the father, but it is unclear, at this point, exactly what the ramifications are for the changes in that significant relationship. The present investigation sought to explore the impact on interpersonal intimacy, as the absence of the father from the home or even from the life of his daughter was thought to be associated with her feeling less secure or adequate in intimate interpersonal relationships.

Neither parental divorce nor the father-daughter relationship were associated with significant differences in love, dyadic trust, or social intimacy, as measured in this study. Biller (1981) had concluded that divorce uniquely affected the daughter, as father absence had an effect on her ability to function in interpersonal and heterosexual relationships. The present investigation would tend to indicate that this is not necessarily the case, as daughters of divorce appear to be as satisfied in their relationships as are their counterparts from intact families. The one significant negative finding relative to intimacy was that the daughters of divorced parents perceived more risk associated with intimacy. When this effect was further

examined, it was found that those participants whose parents were divorced and who had no other significant father figure perceived the highest levels of risk. The presence of someone "like a father" apparently was associated with a reduction of the perception of risk in intimacy.

The expectation was that something about the relationship with the father, perhaps communication, emotional support, reliability, encouragement, or some other interpersonal factor, would create differences in the ability to establish meaningful intimate relationships. Leonard (1966) had suggested that the father's unavailability to give love and to be loved was critical to the daughter's development, but it is also important to remember that the presence of the father in the home is likely to provide more economic stability. The provision of economic stability was evidenced by the significant differences between participants from divorced and intact families on socioeconomic status, and by the significant effect of socioeconomic status on the scores on the Dyadic Trust Scale. The reason why participants who had someone "like a father" perceived less risk with intimacy might have been because his presence provided financial as well as emotional stability. Further study could indicate whether economic or interpersonal factors contribute more to the perception of risk in intimacy.

Limitations of the Study

The study's limitations will be discussed and related to threats to the following different forms of validity: internal, statistical conclusion, external, and construct. Although attempts were made to reduce the threats to validity to a minimum, no research project is perfect. Gelso (1979) suggested that all research designs are flawed, but that the researcher can be cognizant of the flaws in the chosen design. Accordingly, an attempt will be made to delineate and describe the possible threats to validity in the present investigation.

Because the present investigation was a correlational design, threats to internal validity should be considered. Internal validity refers to the confidence that can be placed in the association between the predictor and criterion variables and to the ability to rule out alternative explanations for the observed relationships. In a correlational design, variables are not manipulated, and there may be extraneous factors that influence the results. History, or life events or experiences since the divorce, might have affected the observations in the present study. For example, an alternative explanation of the results could have been that subjects experienced depression as a result of parental divorce and that depression made them more pessimistic about relationships and more fearful. Although a number of variables were controlled in this study, it

would have been impossible to eliminate all of the threats due to history.

Inadequate statistical power may have reduced the probability of obtaining statistically significant results, creating a threat to statistical conclusion validity (Heppner, Kivlighan & Wampold, 1992). Despite attempts to obtain a large enough sample, only eleven participants were from divorced families and also had a good relationship with their fathers. The paucity of participants in this group may have reduced the power of the current investigation to detect differences between the groups. There were some marginally significant results, not always in the expected direction, that might have reached the level of statistical significance, if the number of participants in this group were higher.

One possible way to have increased the number of participants in the divorced/ good relationship with father group would have been to include participants who were in the custody of their fathers (14.6% of the original sample). These participants would have been more likely to have had a better relationship with their fathers than those in the custody of their mothers. However, paternal custody may have produced different childhood experiences for the daughters. In addition, the father might have been awarded custody because of an existing poor mother-child relationship. In either of these two cases, the random

heterogeneity of the participants would have produced more variability in responses and would also have threatened statistical conclusion validity (Heppner, Kivlighan & Wampold, 1992). The decision to utilize only participants in the custody of their mothers was an attempt to reduce random heterogeneity, but even that did not guarantee uniformity of experience.

The primary threat to external validity was the use of only university students. These students might vary in significant ways from individuals of the same age, but from different settings. For example, college students are typically competent and relatively high functioning; thus, children of divorce with the most negative experiences might have been excluded. The present investigation avoided the problems of using only counseling center clients, but there is still some threat to external validity. For these reasons, generalization from the current study should not be made to the entire population of children of divorce.

One possible threat to construct validity was mono-method bias, as only self-report measures were utilized. Self-report measures are frequently used in research regarding divorce, but interviews and observations have also been utilized. There may be some bias in using only one method, if all participants tend to respond in a socially desirable way to self-report measures (Heppner, Kivlighan & Wampold, 1992). One indication that the tendency to respond

in a socially desirable way may have been a possibility in the present investigation was that very few participants (2%) described themselves as either homosexual or bisexual. While it is possible that there were indeed that few participants who were not heterosexual, it is also possible that participants were responding in a socially desirable way, despite the anonymity provided them.

A second possible threat to construct validity is hypothesis guessing. Participants in the present study were simply told that interpersonal relationships were being investigated. This procedure was used as an attempt to obscure the essential purpose of the study and to prevent response bias. However, participants might have attempted to make their relationships appear more satisfying. Hypothesis guessing would be difficult to identify, but if participants were attempting to respond in an expected direction, differences between the groups might have been obscured.

Although the reduction of threats to validity was an important consideration in this investigation, some or all of these possible threats, as discussed, were likely to have been factors in the results of this study. The elimination of all possible threats to validity is never possible, but by attending to the problems observed in previous research, this investigation avoided some pitfalls and accordingly was able to extend or expand upon the work of others.

Implications for Future Research

At the very least, it seems important to examine the implications of having someone "like a father" and to include this factor when further exploring the impact of divorce on development. The tendency to dichotomize participants as being from divorced or intact families or as having either a good or poor relationship with their father should be avoided, as it is an oversimplification. Based on the present investigation, the presence or absence of another father figure is one of the factors that may contribute to the observed variations in the findings of previous divorce research.

Because the perception of risk in intimacy was significantly impacted by parental marital status and by the presence of a significant fathering figure, it might also be useful to explore further the relationship between perceived risk and the intergenerational transmission of divorce. Children of divorce seem as likely to form long term relationships as are children from intact families (Booth, Brinkerhoff & White, 1984). The results of the present investigation suggest that the daughters of divorce are also as satisfied with their dating relationships and close friendships as are the daughters from intact families. However, if the children of divorce perceive greater risk in a relationship than do the children of intact families, they may more readily protect themselves from hurt by exiting a

difficult relationship. Staying and attempting to work out any problems within intimate relationships may be seen as more risky. One begins to wonder if the child of divorce may, metaphorically speaking, always have "one foot out the door."

In addition to these above-mentioned areas for further study, the author would recommend that other investigators pursue ways of obtaining more participants in the category of divorced with a good relationship with the father. The small number of participants within this group made analyses feasible with only a few covariates. More participants would be needed so that further comparisons, perhaps including the nature of the mother-daughter relationship or the amount of time elapsed since the divorce, would be desirable.

In the present investigation, the passage of time was controlled by using only participants for whom the divorce occurred three or more years prior to the study. Accordingly, only long-term effects were examined, but it might be that differences in attitudes become less pronounced with time. This factor could interfere with attempts at replication, if the average length of time since the divorce were either greater or lesser than the 7.4 years found in this sample.

The present investigation focused on the impact of divorce on attitudinal indices of intimacy, as others have

examined the impact of divorce on behaviors. Future research may want to obtain behavioral evidence of the importance of having someone "like a father." The attitudinal differences observed within this study may or may not correspond to differences in behavior.

Lewis, Feiring, and Weinraub (1981) also suggest that "many of the effects of father absence can be explained by the differences in the mother's behavior toward her children as a result of lack of support, not necessarily father absence, per se" (p. 280). The father's relationship with the child does not occur in isolation, but is imbedded in other relationships in the family, the extended family, and the social system. Accordingly, the relationship with the father should be examined in conjunction with other significant relationships, including the child's relationship with the mother.

In conclusion, Hetherington, Cox and Cox (1978) felt that divorce was "one of the most serious crises in American life" (p. 175). One of the goals of studying the effect of divorce on relationships and on development is to attempt to reduce any deleterious after effects. The presence of a fathering figure is considered to be important to the optimal development of the child. When counseling divorcing families, an effort should be made to assure that children have the opportunity to have both a mothering and fathering figure in their lives. By taking this need into

consideration, the negative impact of divorce on daughters may be minimized.

APPENDIX A INFORMED CONSENT

The primary investigator of this study is Diane E. Freeman, a doctoral student in Counseling Psychology. This study is designed to learn more about intimate interpersonal relationships. You will be asked to fill out several questionnaires, requiring about one hour of your time.

There are minimal risks due to the questionnaire format. The information that you provide will be kept anonymous. Only your participant number, the last four digits of your parents' phone number, will identify the questionnaires. Please do not put your name, social security number or any other personal identifier on any of the instruments completed. Some of the questionnaires contain explicit questions regarding your sexual preference or sexual activities. These questions regarding intimate relationships may cause some discomfort. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. Only the primary investigator and her supervisor, Dr. Dorothy D. Nevill will have access to the information disclosed on the questionnaires.

There will be no monetary compensation made, and the only other possible benefit will be any credit that you receive in your psychology class. You are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation in this project at any time without prejudice. If you have any questions about the procedures, please feel free to ask them now or after data collection. For questions which arise after the conclusion of the study, contact Diane E. Freeman, Counseling Center, 301 Peabody Hall, 392-1575.

APPENDIX B DEBRIEFING

Thank you for your participation in this study. The purpose of this investigation was to explore the impact of the father-daughter relationship on interpersonal intimacy. Comparisons will be made between daughters from intact or divorced families who have either good or poor relationships with their fathers. One primary hypothesis is that daughters with poor relationships with their fathers will score lower on measures of interpersonal intimacy than daughters with good relationships with their fathers. It is further expected that daughters of parental divorce will be more likely to have poor relationships with their fathers than will the daughters from intact families.

Adolescents and young adults are expected to begin to establish intimate relationships outside of their families. Consequently, it is important to have a better understanding of those factors which might interfere with the capacity for intimacy. Intimacy does not simply refer to sexual behaviors; it requires the ability to trust and share personal information with another.

The questions that you have answered will provide information on your family background, your relationship with your father or another "fathering figure", behavioral indications of intimacy, and your attitudes toward intimate relationships. There has been no deception involved in this study. If you have any further questions about this study or if you would like feedback about your responses, please contact Diane E. Freeman, 301 Peabody Hall, 392-1575.

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Of the children in your family, are you the:
Oldest _____ Only _____ Other _____
2. How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____
3. Your age today? _____
4. Your gender? Male _____ Female _____
5. Your racial/ethnic background is:
A) White/Caucasian _____ B) Black/African American _____
C) Native American _____ D) Hispanic _____
E) Asian _____ F) Other _____

Please answer the following questions for your biologic parents.

6. Are your parents Married ____ Separated ____ Divorced ____ ?
7. Is either parent deceased? Y N (If yes, Which? _____)
8. Please describe your parents' highest educational level, using the following scale:

Elementary School = 1	High School = 2
A.A., A.S. or Trade School = 3	Bachelor's Degree = 4
Master's Degree = 5	Ph.D., M.D., etc. = 6

Mother _____ Father _____

9. Please indicate your parents' occupation and employment status:

Mother's Occupation - _____ Father's Occupation - _____

Presently Employed? Y N Presently Employed? Y N

On a scale from 1-7, with 1 = poor and 7 = excellent, please rate the following:

10. Your relationship with your Mother: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 11. Your relationship with your Father: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
 12. Relationship between parents: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If your parents are divorced, please answer the following:

13. How old were you at the time of divorce _____ ?
 14. Who is/was the primary custodial parent for you?
 Mother _____ Father _____ Shared _____ Other _____
 15. Have either of your parents remarried? Mother Y N
 Father Y N
 16. Is there anyone who has "been like a father to you", other
 than your natural (biological) father? Y N

If yes, please specify _____

Please answer the following questions about your own dating history:

17. At what age did you begin dating? _____.
 18. How often did you date during high school?
 Occasionally _____ Weekly _____ More than once a week _____
 19. What was the length of your longest dating relationship in
 high school? _____ years _____ months _____ weeks.
 20. Are you currently dating anyone? Y N
 Or, are you engaged? Y N
 Or, are you married? Y N
 21. Are you satisfied with the quality of your dating
 relationships? Y N
 22. Are you satisfied with the frequency of your dates?
 Y N
 23. How many dating relationships have you had in the past
 year? _____

24. What was the length of your longest dating relationship in college? _____ years _____ months _____ weeks.
25. At what age did you become sexually active (If not applicable, please write N/A)? _____
26. Do you consider yourself to be: Heterosexual _____
Homosexual _____
Bisexual _____

APPENDIX D
PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP SURVEY

Please complete the following items about your father.

1. How much time do you feel you spend with your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = almost none, 7 = a great deal)
2. How well do you feel you have been able to maintain a steady relationship with your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
3. How much do you trust your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)
4. How confident are you that your father would not ridicule or make fun of you if you were to talk about a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
5. How confident are you that your father would help you when you have a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
6. How close do you feel to your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = very distant, 7 = very close)
7. How comfortable would you be approaching your father about a romantic problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
8. How comfortable would you be talking to your father about a problem at school? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
9. How confused are you about the exact role your father is to have in your life? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. How accurately do you feel you understand your father's feelings, thoughts, and behavior?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. How easily do you accept the weaknesses in your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. To what extent do you think of your father as an adult with a life of his own, as opposed to thinking of him only as your father?
(1 = think of only as father, 7 = see as an adult with life of his own) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. How often do you get angry at your father?
(1 = almost never, 7 = quite often) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. In general, how much do you resent your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. How well do you communicate with your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. How well does your father understand your needs, feelings, and behaviors?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. How well does your father listen to you
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. How much do you care for your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. When you are away from him, how much do you typically miss your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. How much do you respect your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. How much do you value your father's opinion? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

22. How much do you admire your father? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

23. How much would you like to be like 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
your father?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

24. How much would you be satisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
with your father's lifestyle as
your own?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

If you listed another adult male who was significant in your life, or "like a father" to you, in the previous questionnaire, please complete the following items about this person, replacing the blank space with his name.

1. How much time do you feel you spend with _____ ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = almost none, 7 = a great deal)
2. How well do you feel you have been able to maintain a steady relationship with _____ ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
3. How much do you trust _____ ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)
4. How confident are you that _____ would not ridicule or make fun of you if you were to talk about a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
5. How confident are you that _____ would help you when you have a problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
6. How close do you feel to _____ ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = very distant, 7 = very close)
7. How comfortable would you be approaching _____ about a romantic problem? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
8. How comfortable would you be talking to _____ about a problem at school? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely)
9. How confused are you about the exact role _____ is to have in your life? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)
10. How accurately do you feel you understand _____'s feelings, thoughts, and behavior? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

11. How easily do you accept the weaknesses in _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. To what extent do you think of _____ as an adult with a life of his own, as opposed to thinking of him only as your _____ ?
(1 = think of only as _____ , 7 = see as adult with life of his own) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. How often do you get angry at _____ ?
(1 = almost never, 7 = quite often) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. In general, how much do you resent _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. How well do you communicate with _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. How well does _____ understand your needs, feelings, and behaviors?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. How well does _____ listen to you?
(1 = not at all, 7 = extremely) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. How much do you care for _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. When you are away from him, how much do you typically miss _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. How much do you respect _____ ?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. How much do you value _____ 's opinion?
(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. How much do you admire _____ ? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

23. How much would you like to be 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
like _____ ?

(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

24. How much would you be satisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
with _____ 's lifestyle as
your own?

(1 = not at all, 7 = a great deal)

Source: Dr. Mark A. Fine, Department of Psychology,
University of Dayton, 300 College Park, Dayton, Ohio 45469.
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APPENDIX E
RUBIN'S LOVE SCALE

Please complete the following items with reference to your current or most recent boyfriend/girlfriend.

	Not at all true; Disagree completely				Definitely true; Agree completely				
1. If _____ were feeling badly, my first duty would be to cheer him or her up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. I feel that I can confide in _____ about virtually everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. I find it easy to ignore _____'s faults.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. I would do almost anything for _____.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. I feel very possessive toward _____.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. If I could never be with _____, I would feel miserable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. If I were lonely, my first thought would be to seek _____ out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. One of my primary concerns is _____'s welfare.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. I would forgive _____ for practically anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Not at all true; Disagree Completely					Definitely true; Agree Completely			
10. I feel responsible for _____'s well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. When I am with _____, I spend a good deal of time just looking at him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. I would greatly enjoy being confided in by _____.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. It would be hard for me to get along without _____.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Source: Rubin, Z. (1970). Measurement of Romantic Love.
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 16, 265-273.
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APPENDIX F DYADIC TRUST SCALE

Please complete the following regarding your current or most recent boyfriend/girlfriend.

	Not at all true; Disagree completely				Definitely true; Agree completely			
1. _____ is primarily interested in his/her own welfare.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. There are times when _____ cannot be trusted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. _____ is perfectly honest and truthful with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I feel that I can trust _____ completely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. _____ is truly sincere in his/her promises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I feel that _____ does not show me enough consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. _____ treats me fairly and justly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I feel that _____ can be counted on to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Source: Larzelere, R.E. & Huston, T.L. (1980). The Dyadic Trust Scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42, 595-604. Copyrighted 1980 by the National Council on Family

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APPENDIX G
RISK IN INTIMACY INVENTORY

Listed below are several statements that reflect different attitudes about relationships. Some of the items refer to general attitudes or beliefs about relationships. Other items refer to more specific kinds of interactions, such as those with acquaintances (e.g., someone you've met only once, someone you know only from class), with casual friends, or people you are very close to.

Using the scale below, indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by writing the appropriate number in the blank beside each item.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 = very strong disagreement | 4 = slight agreement |
| 2 = moderate disagreement | 5 = moderate agreement |
| 3 = slight disagreement | 6 = very strong agreement |

There are no right or wrong answers. This is simply a measure of how you feel. Please try to give an honest appraisal of yourself.

- _____ 1. It is dangerous to get really close to people.
- _____ 2. I prefer that people keep their distance from me.
- _____ 3. I'm afraid to get really close to someone because I might get hurt.
- _____ 4. At best, I can handle only one or two close friendships at a time.
- _____ 5. I find it difficult to trust other people.
- _____ 6. I avoid intimacy.
- _____ 7. Being close to other people makes me afraid.
- _____ 8. I'm hesitant to share personal information about myself.
- _____ 9. Being close to people is a risky business.
- _____ 10. The most important thing to consider in a relationship is whether I might get hurt.

Source: Pilkington, C.J. & Richardson, D.R. (1988).
Perceptions of risk in intimacy. *Journal of Social and
Personal Relationships*, 5, 503-508. Copyright 1988 by Sage
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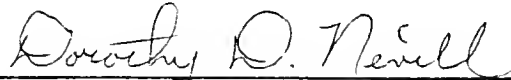
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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Diane E. Freeman was born in Ocala, Florida, on November 7, 1947. Her mother, Neville T. Edwards currently resides in Orlando, Florida; her father, George E. Edwards, died during the spring of 1992. Diane graduated from Colonial High School, Orlando, Florida, in 1965. That same year, Diane was admitted to the University of Florida. Ms. Freeman graduated and was awarded the Bachelor of Science in Nursing in 1969.

Following a number of years spent as an Air Force nurse, a neonatal nurse, an owner of two businesses, a real estate appraiser and a mother of two children, Diane enrolled in the University of Florida as a post-baccalaureate student in psychology. In August of 1988, she enrolled as a full-time doctoral student in counseling psychology at the University of Florida. Diane received her Master of Science degree in May 1990. In August 1992, she began her one-year internship at the Counseling Center of the University of Florida.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Dorothy D. Nevill, Chair
Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Harry Grater
Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



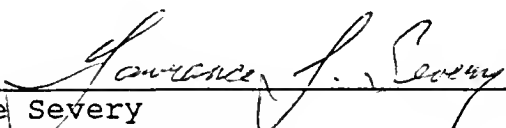
Martin Heesacker
Associate Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Phyllis Meek
Associate Professor of Counselor
Education

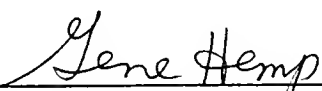
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



Lawrence Severy
Professor of Psychology

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August, 1993



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